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ANN/25

THE NEW

ANNUAL REGISTER,

OR GENERAL REPOSITORY OF

HISTORY,

POLITICS,

AND

LITERATURE,

For the YEAR 1789.

TO WHICH IS PREFIXED,

The HISTORY of KNOWLEDGE, LEARNING, and TASTE, in GREAT BRITAIN, during Part of the Reign of Queen ELIZABETH.

LONDON,
Printed for G. G. J. and J. ROBINSON, Pater-noster-Row.
MDCCXC.

ANNUAL REGISTER,

OR A VIEW OF

HISTORY,

POLITICS,

IN preparing another Volume of the New Annual Register to the Public, [illegible]

PREFACE.

IN preſenting another Volume of the New Annual Regiſter to the Public, there are two circumſtances which we have reaſon to reflect upon with pleaſure. The firſt is, that we have been able to give it ſo early an appearance; and the other, that it has been executed with an attention and diligence which cannot fail of procuring it a favourable reception.

In the Foreign Hiſtory, beſides the Narrative of the important Events that have taken place in the Eaſtern Parts of Europe, in Germany, in Holland, and in Flanders, the account we have given of the proceedings of the Notables in France will demand, in an eſpecial manner, the notice of our Readers, as they will thence be enabled to trace, with perſpicuity and preciſion, the ſteps which have led to the late aſtoniſhing Revolution, and to ſee that, wonderful as it is, it was the neceſſary reſult of the previous diſpoſition of things in that country.

With regard to Great Britain, we have endeavoured to relate, with accuracy, copiouſneſs, and im-

partiality, the peculiar ſituation ſhe was placed in, in conſequence of the king's illneſs, and the very intereſting debates which that illneſs occaſioned concerning the Settlement of a Regency.

In the Introductory Part, we are arrived at a period in which the Literature of England becomes ſo various and extenſive, that we cannot comprize our review of it, during a whole reign, within the compaſs of a ſingle article. To do juſtice, in this reſpect, to the æra of queen Elizabeth, into which we have now entered, will, probably, require the addition of two ſucceeding Numbers.

Of our Miſcellaneous Department we may ſafely aſſert, that it will be found inſtructive and entertaining in a high degree, and that there is a variety in it which will render it agreeable to readers of the moſt different taſtes and diſpoſitions. As to the account of Domeſtic and Foreign Literature, it is ſufficient to ſay, that it is drawn up with all the care and candour which we have hitherto diſplayed, and that we have increaſing reaſon to be ſatisfied with the ſcientific plan on which it was originally formed, and has hitherto been conducted.

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THE HISTORY OF KNOWLEDGE, LEARNING, AND TASTE,

IN GREAT BRITAIN,

During the Reign of Queen ELIZABETH.

PART THE FIRST.

IN the courſe of ſeveral preceding articles, the proſpect has been opening upon us with regard to the advances which were made in the ſtate of ſcience and literature in this kingdom. Theſe advances, if not ſo rapid and complete as might be wiſhed, bore a conſiderable proportion to the ſituation of things in other countries, Italy excepted, which long preceded, and far excelled the reſt of Europe in ſome of the fineſt energies and exertions of the human mind, and eſpecially with reſpect to Poetry, Painting, and the Polite Arts in general. It was the progreſs of religious truth that in England was the moſt ſubject to interruptions; and this had particularly been the caſe during the gloomy, but happily the ſhort reign of queen Mary. Nevertheleſs, on the whole, the light of learning continued to break in upon our iſland; and though it was indeed, for a while, only the dawn of the morning, it promiſed to lead on to a more perfect day.

At length we are come to a reign of distinguished importance in the history of Great Britain, and, in fact, of distinguished importance in the history of the western part of Europe. For the honour of what is usually called the weaker sex, this reign was that of a woman. The first instance, and the immediately preceding instance, of female government in our country, had not recommended that part of the English constitution which rendered the crown descendible to women: but the second amply justified this rule of succession, and shewed that a salique law would not universally be useful; for queen Elizabeth ruled with a wisdom and glory which few men have attained.

We are not insensible that much diversity of opinion has subsisted, and many disputes been maintained, concerning various parts of Elizabeth's character and government; and that she has been represented in very different lights, according as writers have been affected by their religious or political sentiments. But, notwithstanding the ebullitions of extravagant encomium on the one hand, or the censures of unreasonable dislike on the other, it is not difficult to form a just estimate concerning her. It ought to be allowed, by her warmest panegyrists, that even with respect to her public administration, some few deductions should be made from her praises. Still, however, it is chiefly with regard to her private and personal qualities, that she is liable to exception and condemnation. As a woman she had many faults, but as a sovereign her splendour was truly great. Her administration of foreign affairs, in circumstances of peculiar embarrassment and danger, was wise and vigorous; and her solicitude to promote the general prosperity of her subjects, was steady and persevering. Commerce and navigation received a large increase under her fostering care; the people gradually advanced in wealth and prosperity; and the kingdom stood in high reputation. The genius of Englishmen awoke from the torpidity which had too much depressed it in the preceding reigns, and displayed itself in noble exploits and manly exertions.

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In a variety of views, the luſtre of literature in the period of queen Elizabeth, was equal to its luſtre in other reſpects. It may truly be ſaid, that her reign was a reign of knowledge and learning, as well as of political wiſdom and military glory. Some have carried their encomiums ſo far as to repreſent it as the golden age of Engliſh literature; but this cannot be conſidered as the real truth of the caſe. However eminent many of the perſons were who adorned the era of Elizabeth; however juſtly their names are ſtill held in eſteem and reputation; and though ſome of their works deſervedly continue to be read and admired, there are undoubtedly ſeveral important parts of ſcience which, in later times, have been ſtudied with greater accuracy, and advanced to a much higher degree of perfection. It is not neceſſary, in order to do juſtice to the period before us, to extol it beyond its real merit, or to depreciate the improvements of ſucceeding ages.

The firſt grand point that preſents itſelf, in the literary hiſtory of the reign of queen Elizabeth, is the ſtate of religion; for theology was at that time connected with every thing which is important and intereſting in the condition of ſociety. In ſtrict philoſophical truth, religion and civil policy are ſeparate objects, and ought not to be mingled together. But in the period we are treating of, it was almoſt impoſſible that a principle ſo rational and refined ſhould enter into the conceptions of the human underſtanding. Conſidering the ſituation of public affairs, and the ſentiments, temper, and manners of the age, it was neceſſary that government ſhould interfere in religious matters. The chief thing to be regretted is, that government ſhould aſſume ſo abſolute an authority in them, and not unite toleration with eſtabliſhment; but of toleration no ſet of men had then any competent idea.

In conſequence of the reſtoration of popery by queen Mary, the minds of the Engliſh muſt have been in extreme agitation with regard to the conduct which would be purſued by Elizabeth. During the anxious ſuſpence of

fears and hopes, the fears would predominate in the hearts of the Roman Catholics, and the hopes in those of the Proteſtants. Indeed, diſcerning men could have little reaſon to doubt concerning the part which the queen would finally take. Both her education and her intereſt led her to favour the Reformation; nor could ſhe long heſitate on the ſubject. In theſe ſentiments ſhe was confirmed by the wiſeſt members of her privy council, and particularly by ſir William Cecil, who repreſented to her that by re-eſtabliſhing the Proteſtant religion ſhe would coincide with the general inclinations of the people, and, at the ſame time, moſt effectually provide for her own ſecurity, ſince her title to the crown was incompatible with the authority of the Roman pontiff. She acted, however, with caution in the management of the buſineſs, and was ſolicitous not to alarm the adherents of popery by too explicit a declaration of her intentions. Nevertheleſs, while ſhe preſerved this circumſpection, ſhe took care to afford early indications of her favourable views to the Proteſtant cauſe; and ſome of theſe indications were diſplayed in a manner that was pleaſing and ingenious. When, upon her having given liberty to the priſoners who were confined on account of religion, ſhe was told, by one Rainsford, that he had a petition to preſent to her, in behalf of other priſoners called Matthew, Mark, Luke, and John; ſhe readily replied, that ſhe muſt firſt conſult the priſoners themſelves, and learn of them whether they deſired that liberty which he had aſked for them. At the time of her coronation, when ſhe was ſolemnly conducted through the city of London, a boy, who perſonated Truth, was let down from one of the triumphal arches, and preſented her with a copy of the Bible, which ſhe received in the moſt gracious manner, placing it in her boſom, and declaring, that, amidſt all the coſtly teſtimonies which the citizens had that day afforded of their attachment, this preſent was by far the moſt precious and the moſt acceptable.

It was not in words only that queen Elizabeth manifeſted her regard to the Proteſtant Reformation. Beſides ſetting

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at liberty thoſe who had been impriſoned for refuſing to ſubmit to the dictates of Popery, ſhe recalled the exiles, who, on the ſame account, had taken refuge in foreign countries. When theſe worthies returned, they were received with ſingular marks of favour; and it was eaſy to conjecture, that from the moſt illuſtrious and learned among them would be taken the future governors of the church. As a farther manifeſtation of the queen's intentions, ſhe ordered that a conſiderable part of the ſervice, the Litany, the Lord's Prayer, the Creed, and the Goſpels, ſhould be read in Engliſh. What was of ſuperior importance ſtill, and might be regarded as a ſure indication that the moſt eſſential change in religion was reſolved upon, ſhe firſt publiſhed injunctions that all the churches ſhould conform themſelves to the practice of her own chapel, and then forbade the hoſt to be elevated any more in her preſence.

As ſoon as the parliament met, the deſign of aboliſhing the Popiſh ſyſtem was carried on with greater vigour. A bill was brought in for ſuppreſſing the monaſteries lately erected, and for reſtoring the tenths and firſt-fruits to the queen. It was with ſome difficulty that this point was gained; notwithſtanding which, another object, of far higher moment, was immediately purſued. This was to annex the eccleſiaſtical ſupremacy to the crown; and though the act only gave to her majeſty the denomination of *Governeſs*, not *Head* of the church, it inveſted her with all the power which had been exerciſed by her father and her brother. The popiſh biſhops, who, alone, as yet, ſat in the houſe, ſtrenuouſly oppoſed the paſſing of the bill, and by the ſuperiority of their learning to that of the temporal peers, had the advantage in the debate. But whatever weakneſs the lay-lords might diſcover in point of argument, they carried their cauſe by a majority of voices; and it was a cauſe of the higheſt conſequence to the eſtabliſhment of the Proteſtant religion. The powers hence conferred upon the queen were of the moſt extenſive nature. Without the concurrence of parliament, or even

of the convocation, ſhe might repreſs all hereſies, eſtabliſh or repeal all canons, alter every point of diſcipline, and ordain or aboliſh any religious rite or ceremony. With reſpect to the determination of what ſhould be deemed hereſy, ſhe was only limited to ſuch doctrines as had been adjudged hereſy, by the authority of ſcripture, by the firſt four general councils, or by any general councils which followed the ſcripture as their rule, or by ſuch other doctrines as ſhould hereafter be denominated hereſy by the parliament and convocation. To enable her the more effectually to exerciſe this authority, ſhe was empowered, by a clauſe of the act, to name commiſſioners, either laymen or clergymen, as ſhe ſhould think proper; and on this foundation was erected, in a ſubſequent part of her reign, that court of eccleſiaſtical commiſſion, which, in the ſequel, was the ſource of the moſt arbitrary proceedings, and of the moſt ſhameful tyranny, oppreſſion, and perſecution. The powers we have mentioned, as granted to Elizabeth, will appear to many, in the preſent enlightened and liberal age, to have been unreaſonable and enormous, and contrary to the juſt ends of political government. But the conferring of ſuch powers accorded with the ideas of the times, which had no conception of introducing religious changes by the mere operation of reaſon and argument, and which had not learned to aſcertain the true nature, objects, boundaries, and diſtinctions, of civil and eccleſiaſtical authority.

In the farther progreſs of reformation, a law was paſſed, which confirmed all the ſtatutes that had been enacted in king Edward's time with regard to religion; and during the courſe of the ſeſſion, a ſolemn and public diſputation was held between the divines of the proteſtant and thoſe of the catholic communion. Such diſputations were in that age deemed eſſentially neceſſary on many theological occaſions, and eſpecially when it was in the contemplation of the ruling powers to introduce religious alterations of a great and important nature. The cuſtom was never of any material uſe,

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and it has now long been abolished. It was always so contrived, that victory should be declared on that side which was favoured by government; and in the present case, the declaration was founded in truth. The fact was, that the protestant divines had the real advantage in point of argument; and it is recorded to their honour, that the debate was conducted with impartiality, and carried on without noise or disorder. Such was the encouragement derived from the success of this disputation, that a bill was brought in, and carried into a law, for abolishing the mass, and re-establishing the liturgy of king Edward. Thus was the reformation from popery solemnly confirmed and settled by the legislature, and it was a settlement that has never been revoked, so as to give the public ascendency to the Roman catholic religion. The church of England subsists on the same legal foundation to the present day, and continues to hold out the same standard of doctrines and of worship. It was undoubtedly an event of infinite importance finally to reject the usurped authority of the see of Rome; and unspeakable advantages have hence been derived to the cause of truth, to the knowledge of sound theology, and the elucidation of the scriptures. Nevertheless, with all due deference to the wisdom of that age, we must be permitted to express our regret, that the cause of protestantism was not embraced on more enlarged and generous principles, and that the reformers, who were just emancipated from the terrors of persecution, should not allow to others the liberty which they had exercised for themselves; the liberty of judging what were the positions contained in the sacred writings. So far, however, were they from pursuing so rational a conduct, that as soon as they came into power they paid no regard to the private consciences of men, but expected every one to adapt himself to the dictates of the public mind: and what has added highly to the grievance is, that their decisions were not confined to their contemporaries alone, but have been rendered binding on a distant posterity.

There are persons who maintain, that the divines of that period were fully competent to determine what the doctrines are which are comprized in the New Testament, and that they have never been exceeded in theological knowledge. Were this, in fact, the case, still they could have had no right authoritatively to judge for others, and to enforce their articles of faith by penal sanctions. But it can never reasonably be granted that their acquaintance with divinity and their skill in expounding the scriptures, were equal to the attainments of succeeding times. Having but lately emerged from the errors of popery, they could not, at once, take in the whole compass of religious truth. They wanted, likewise, many of the helps which have since been afforded to that purpose. There were undoubtedly some great men amongst the protestant bishops and clergy in queen Elizabeth's reign; but they have been far exceeded both in knowledge and true learning, by divines of a later age; and consequently, their tenets should never have been received as decisive and final.

The thirty-nine articles of the church of England, which were agreed upon, in convocation, in 1562, and confirmed by act of parliament, in 1571, were intended "for the avoiding diversity of opinions, and for the esta-"blishing of consent touching true religion." But to avoid diversity of opinions, and to establish consent touching true religion, cannot in the nature of things be attained. So long as the human mind preserves its faculty of thinking, so long will different objects of enquiry present themselves in different lights to the understanding. In an age that was peculiarly devoted to theological controversy, nothing could be more absurd than to expect an absolute uniformity of sentiment, unless we are disposed to except the idea of producing such uniformity by parliamentary decision. An act of parliament, indeed, when accompanied with pains and penalties may enforce silence, but cannot produce conviction. It was not even silence that was effected by it, in the period concerning which we are treating. The zeal

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of men in matters which they deemed infinitely important roſe above all the obſtacles that ſtood in their way, and diſplayed itſelf in a great number of publications.

What was leaſt the ſubject of debate were thoſe doctrines which had little or no immediate connection with the peculiar and diſtinguiſhing principles of the Roman Catholics or the Puritans. Such doctrines, however, could not entirely eſcape examination, though by no means in the degree in which they have excited the attention of ſucceeding times. The tenets commonly received, and which, indeed, were ſupported by the thirty-nine articles, were thoſe that are called Calviniſtical, and eſpecially the notion of abſolute predeſtination. In theſe opinions there was ſuch an almoſt univerſal concurrence, that we meet with only one perſon, of any conſideration, in this reign, who advanced ſentiments approaching to what afterwards went under the name of Arminianiſm. This was Peter Baro, lady Margaret's profeſſor of divinity in the univerſity of Cambridge; and though he propoſed his doubts with modeſty and caution, ſuch a violent oppoſition was raiſed againſt him, and his ſituation was rendered ſo diſagreeable and troubleſome, that, for the ſake of peace, he choſe to quit it, and retired to London. Hence it appears what little latitude was then allowed to the freedom of thinking and of debate, on ſubjects the moſt innocent, and with regard to doctrines the truth of which is now generally maintained by the clergy, and eſpecially by thoſe of them who ſtand the higheſt in dignity, reputation, and learning. We muſt be ſenſible how narrow was the ſpirit, and how confined the true theological knowledge of the times, when the gloomy dogmas of Calviniſm were maintained with ſuch pertinacity by the governors of the church, and to call them in queſtion was looked upon as a crime. If ſuch inferior deviations from the eſtabliſhed ſyſtem as thoſe of Baro expoſed him to ſo much uneaſineſs and diſtreſs, what would have been ſaid, what would have been acted, if the trinity, or any other of the doctrines which by ſome are deemed of the moſt eſſential

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importance, had been attacked? The opinions which are now diſſeminated with impunity, and even without alarm, except to minds of a narrow caſt, would, at that period, have ſubjected the propagators of them to the forfeiture of their lives.

The controverſy between the proteſtants and the Roman catholics continued to be the grand controverſy of the times. Though the latter were in a ſtate of depreſſion, and their ſyſtem was diſcarded from the public and national faith, they ſtill conſtituted a numerous and formidable body; nor could it be ſuppoſed that they would reſt quietly in the rejection of their doctrine and worſhip from that aſcendency they had ſo long maintained, and which had ſo lately been revived. Accordingly, the adherents to the ſee of Rome were zealous and earneſt to ſupport, and, if poſſible, to reſtore their cauſe. It does not fall within the compaſs of our preſent deſign to relate their general intrigues and attempts to this purpoſe. But beſides employing all their arts of policy, and all the efforts of power which they were capable of exerting, they had recourſe to the pen and the preſs, and their ableſt prieſts and champions were called in to ſuſtain the literary combat. On the other hand, the proteſtant divines were equally active and vigorous in defence of the principles of the reformation. Hence the writings, on both ſides, were very numerous; and though moſt of them are now forgotten, and thoſe which are remembered are not read, they were at that period of great conſequence, and comprehended a highly intereſting part of the literature of the country. Perhaps we ſhall not be accuſed of much partiality, when we ſay that the proteſtants had the better of the argument. This muſt, indeed, neceſſarily have been the caſe from the abſurdities and corruptions of popery, which are too flagrant to ſtand the teſt of rational and ſober inveſtigation. The doctrine of tranſubſtantiation, in particular, involves in it contradictions, of which it can never be cleared by the utmoſt exertions of ingenuity, ſkill, and learning. Many other, likewiſe, of the tenets of the Roman

man church were so manifestly contrary to the dictates of reason, and the genuine interpretation of the sacred records, that it is by no means surprizing that the cause of the reformation should, in the end, be generally triumphant. At the same time, the protestants did not always defend themselves in the best manner; and they were often embarrassed by their not daring to controvert the sentiments and authority of the ancient fathers. The true principle of protestantism is the perfection of scripture; and so long as that principle is adhered to, the reformed religion stands upon a foundation which can never be shaken. But the divines of queen Elizabeth's reign were not sufficiently enlightened to keep their eyes constantly and invariably fixed upon the proper ground of their separation from popery. The attainment of an object so desirable was reserved for the next century; it was reserved for the manly exertions of a Daillé in France, and a Jeremy Taylor and a Chillingworth in England.

Whilst the principal clergy of the established church were thus engaged in a warm and vigorous contest with their popish adversaries, they found a new set of enemies to contend with, who had sprung up in their own communion. These were the Puritans, who were not satisfied with the departure which had already taken place from the Romish hierarchy, but maintained the necessity of a more complete reformation than the queen, the legislature, and the majority of the prelates were willing to adopt. The rise and progress of this sect, which, under different denominations, has subsisted to the present day, are important objects in the religious and political History of Great Britain. During the reigns of Henry the Eighth and Edward the Sixth, there were some divines who strongly objected to the use of the clerical vestments of the church of Rome; and this was particularly the case with regard to bishop Hooper, who was followed in his scruples by Latimer, Farrar, and others of the first reformers. But the proper origin of the Puritans, as a distinct sect, must be referred to the divisions which arose among the exiles, who had taken refuge abroad, in

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queen Mary's time, on account of religion. In the places where they ſettled, and where they were permitted to carry on their worſhip in ſeparate congregations, it became a queſtion among them, whether they ſhould ſtrictly adhere to the ſervice book of king Edward, or whether they ſhould adopt a plan which, in the opinion of ſeveral of them, was more conformable to the policy and order of ſcripture. The plan was founded on the principles and diſcipline of the proteſtant church of Geneva. The controverſy, according to the ſpirit of the times, was maintained with great warmth and eagerneſs; and when the refugees came back to their own country, they brought with them their different opinions and their angry paſſions. On the ſubſequent operation of theſe opinions and paſſions it is not our intention to enlarge. It is ſufficient to our preſent purpoſe to obſerve, that a conteſt which, in its origin, related to what a philoſophic mind will conſider as very trifling objects, was at length productive of ſerious conſequences. It ended in a ſeparation of a large body of proteſtants from the national church, and, of courſe, gave riſe, amongſt other events, to a vaſt number of publications, in which the diſputants, on both ſides, diſplayed a greater portion of zeal and bigotry than of candour and judgment.

Though the books that were written upon the occaſion, are now almoſt univerſally, like thoſe in the popiſh controverſy, conſigned to oblivion, they were of real importance at the period in which they were publiſhed, and had no ſmall degreee of influence upon the principles, manners, and conduct of ſucceeding times. Amidſt the undue ſtreſs which the puritans laid upon the abolition of certain veſtments, ceremonies, and forms of diſcipline, there was one principle adopted by them, the full reſult of which they did not themſelves ſee, but which their ſucceſſors have improved upon, ſo as to give to their diſſent from the eſtabliſhment a more rational appearance. This was, that the ſacred writings are the ſtandards of worſhip, as well as of doctrine; and therefore, that nothing ſhould be impoſed

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upon the conſcience or practice of men, but what is founded on their expreſs injunction and authority.

It is not, we believe, unuſual to conceive of the puritans as having been nothing more than a ſet of ignorant and illiterate enthuſiaſts; ſomewhat like the generality of the methodiſts at the preſent day. But without having any particular prejudice in their favour, we muſt be allowed to obſerve, that ſuch an idea of things is contrary to fact. That their minds were narrow, and their manners harſh, will readily be acknowledged; and it muſt equally be granted that, amidſt the irritations of perſecution, ſome wild enthuſiaſts roſe up amongſt them. But ſeveral of the leading men among the puritanical clergy were eminently poſſeſſed of the learning of the times. In numbers, however, they cannot be compared, for literature, with their antagoniſts; nor had they any pretenſions to the merit of elegant compoſition. To the refinements of taſte, and to the love of the fine arts, they appear to have been perfect ſtrangers.

We are not to imagine, from the account that has been given of the religious controverſies which were carried on during the reign of queen Elizabeth, that an entire freedom of debate and of writing was then admitted. The true liberty of the preſs was by no means at that time underſtood. Thoſe perſons, whether among the Roman Catholics or the Puritans, who wrote againſt the eſtabliſhed ſyſtem, did it at great hazard; and the ſufferings which in ſome caſes were inflicted on the boldneſs of publication were extremely ſevere. Nevertheleſs, nothing could reſtrain the ardour of the combatants, who contrived, by one method or other, to get their books diſſeminated through the kingdom. In vain ſhould we look, in the generality of the works that were publiſhed at that period, for the moderation and candour with which religious controverſies ſhould ever be conducted. Many of the theological writings of the age, and eſpecially of thoſe men who belonged to the perſecuted parties, were either diſtinguiſhed by a violence of ſpirit

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which kept no bounds, or by a buffoonery and ridicule that were altogether contemptible; nor were the advocates of the national church always exempt from the same faults.

In Scotland, the proteſtant reformation was ſanctioned by parliament in 1560, the year after its final eſtabliſhment in England; but in the former country it was ſettled upon a different model. The Scottiſh divines, who were men of very harſh and rigid manners, and who, though poſſeſſed of learning, were not, upon the whole, equal in this reſpect to their ſouthern neighbours, aſſumed the tone of a total departure from what had the leaſt reſemblance to the church of Rome. John Knox was the principal agent in the buſineſs, who brought with him, from Geneva, where he had reſided for a time, and officiated to an Engliſh congregation, a violent averſion to the epiſcopal form of eccleſiaſtical government; and he had ſufficient influence to prevail upon his countrymen to adopt the plan of Calvin, in all the parts of its diſcipline, as well as of its doctrine. Thus Preſbyterianiſm became the public religion of Scotland; and perhaps a poor eſtabliſhment was beſt adapted to a poor country. It would, however, be pardonable, if the preſent enlightened clergy of North Britain ſhould think that matters were carried too far; and if they ſhould feel a wiſh that their anceſtors had preſerved ſome better means of rewarding thoſe who ſhould diſtinguiſh themſelves by their peculiar abilities and merit, and by their valuable writings.

In adverting to the principal divines of this period, we ſhall begin with thoſe of the eſtabliſhed church, and pay our firſt reſpects to the learned prelates by whom the reign of queen Elizabeth was adorned.

Matthew Parker, the year after her majeſty's acceſſion to the crown, was raiſed to the ſee of Canterbury, an honour which he neither ſolicited nor deſired, but to which he was entitled, not only by his having been the favourite chaplain

lain of Anna Bullen, the queen's mother, but by his talents and his virtues. The high ſtation to which he was promoted was ſuſtained by him with ability and ſpirit. As a theological author he did not greatly diſtinguiſh himſelf, his chief publication in that way, having been his defence of prieſts' marriages, in 1562; many years previous to which he had manifeſted, by his own marriage, his entire approbation of the doctrine he eſpouſed. His other writings diſplayed his general literature to advantage, and ſhewed, in particular, that he was well acquainted with the antiquities of his country. He was of farther ſervice to learning, by publiſhing ſome of our beſt ancient hiſtorians, Matthew of Weſtminſter, Matthew Paris, Thomas Walſingham, and Aſſerius's life of king Alfred; and the valuable collection of manuſcripts which he left to Corpus Chriſti, or Be'net College, where he was educated, and of which he was maſter, has continued a grateful remembrance of him in the univerſity of Cambridge to the preſent day.

Edmund Grindal, ſucceſſor to Parker in the ſee of Canterbury, and who had previouſly been biſhop of London, and archbiſhop of York, applied himſelf more immediately to divinity than to any other branch of literature. His doctrinal ſentiments (as we have before obſerved to have been uſually the caſe at that time) coincided with thoſe of Calvin, and he was far leſs diſpoſed to perſecute the Puritans than his predeceſſor had been. Hence he has unjuſtly been accuſed as having been himſelf of puritanical principles. By the moderation which he exerciſed towards the perſons who had embraced theſe principles, he gave great diſſatisfaction to the queen; and his ſituation at the head of the church, which continued little more than ſeven years, was rendered extremely diſagreeable to him. He had been an active and eminent inſtrument in promoting the cauſe of the reformation from popery, and had ſerved it in a particular manner by his frequent preaching in St. Paul's pulpit. A diſtinguiſhed part had, likewiſe, been taken by him in the public diſputations of that age.

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The fault of Grindal, in his tenderneſs to the Puritans, was amply compenſated by the violence of the next archbiſhop of Canterbury, John Whitgift, who was tranſlated to that ſee from the dioceſe of Worceſter. So far was he from excelling his contemporaries in learning, that perhaps he might have been omitted in a literary hiſtory of England, had he not made a ſtriking figure in the theological tranſactions of the period. His bold and ardent ſpirit fully qualified him for ſeconding the indignation of her majeſty againſt thoſe who refuſed to conform to the eſtabliſhed church. Such was his zeal in this reſpect, that he obtained an eccleſiaſtical commiſſion, the powers of which were too inquiſitorial, and he contrived to lay every poſſible reſtraint upon the liberty of the preſs. His only publications, or, at leaſt, the only ones deſerving of notice, were two tracts, in anſwer to a famous piece of the Puritans, entitled, "An Admonition to the Parliament." Without deciding on the controverſy, it is underſtood that Whitgift diſplayed his abilities in it to conſiderable advantage.

Edwyn Sandys, at firſt biſhop of Worceſter, and afterwards archbiſhop of York, did not render himſelf conſpicuous as a controverſial writer. He was chiefly celebrated as a preacher, and a volume of his ſermons was printed ſome years after his deceaſe. Beſides this, he had the reputation of being a learned orientaliſt, on which account he was one of the perſons that were appointed to give a new tranſlation of the Bible.

John Aylmer, biſhop of London, like Whitgift, was more noted for his ſeverity againſt the Puritans than for his learning, though in that reſpect he was far from being deficient. In the more early part of his life, it had occaſioned his being made tutor to the children of the marquis of Dorſet, afterwards duke of Suffolk, one of whom was the excellent and celebrated lady Jane Grey. His activity againſt the non-conformiſts has been the cauſe of his having been repreſented in a very diſadvantageous light by the writers of that per-

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ſuaſion; but, according to Strype, he was not only a learned, but a humble and pious biſhop. The work by which he diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the literary world, was his anſwer to John Knox's firſt Blaſt againſt the monſtrous Regiment and Empire of Women. In this performance Aylmer ſhewed to advantage his hiſtorical and political knowledge. He is ſuppoſed to have publiſhed lady Jane Grey's letter to Harding, and he aſſiſted John Fox in tranſlating his book of martyrs into Latin.

Thomas Bilſon, biſhop firſt of Worceſter and then of Wincheſter, and whoſe life extended far into the next reign, was of very conſiderable eminence among the divines of the age. His writings were partly of a doctrinal and partly of a practical nature; and he was the author of ſome Latin poems and orations, which, we believe, have never been publiſhed. What gave a celebrity to his name that reached beyond his own time was a controverſy in which he engaged concerning our Saviour's local deſcent into hell. His antagoniſts were Hugh Broughton, eſteemed the rabbi of that period; and Henry Jacob, a learned Browniſt. The poſition maintained by the biſhop was, that our Lord went into the territories of the damned, for the purpoſe of wreſting the keys of death and hell out of the hands of the devil; and in this opinion he was patronized by the queen, who ordered him to defend it againſt thoſe by whom it had been attacked. Our prelate exerted himſelf to the utmoſt in its vindication, but in vain; for after the matter had been warmly debated in both univerſities, the rational ſentiment that the word *Hades* ſignifies only the ſtate of the dead, or the inviſible world, ſilently and univerſally took place. Dr. Bilſon was afterwards one of the two final correctors of the Engliſh tranſlation of the Bible in the reign of king James the Firſt; for which office he appears to have been particularly qualified, as his ſtyle is, in general, much more eaſy and harmonious than was then common amongſt eccleſiaſtics.

Gervaiſe Babington, ſucceſſively biſhop of Landaff, Exeter, and Worceſter, kept himſelf clear from the controverſies of the times; having contented himſelf with writing notes upon the five books of Moſes; with giving an expoſition of the creed, the Lord's prayer, and the ten commandments; and with being the author of ſome other devotional pieces. His works are now little known, and they are ſaid to abound in quaint expreſſions. His abilities and learning, however, were unqueſtionable, and his compoſitions had their ſeaſon of applauſe and peruſal.

Thomas Bentham, biſhop of Lichfield and Coventry, like Babington, did not engage in controverſy. He principally figured as a tranſlator of queen Elizabeth's Bible, the parts which were executed by him being the Pſalms, Ezekiel, and Daniel; and this ſervice was properly aſſigned to him, as he was particularly celebrated for his knowledge of the Hebrew and Chaldee tongues.

Thomas Cooper, biſhop firſt of Lincoln, and afterwards of Wincheſter, deſerves to be recorded as a divine, in conſequence of his expoſition of ſuch chapters of the old teſtament as are read in the church throughout the year, his two volumes of ſermons, and his admonition to the people of England, in anſwer to the famous and ſcurrilous puritanical pamphlet, entitled Martin Mar-prelate. But it was not to theology alone that his ſtudies and his works were confined. He appeared in the world as an hiſtorical writer, and was the ſecond compiler of a Latin dictionary in this country. His Theſaurus Linguæ Romanæ et Britannicæ, which was publiſhed at London, in folio, in 1565, and was an improvement of Elyot's, was much admired by queen Elizabeth, and became the principal cauſe of his eccleſiaſtical promotions. Cooper was, indeed, one of the moſt learned men of the age.

But the glory of the prelates in this reign was John Jewel, biſhop of Saliſbury. It is worthy of being mentioned, a

an example of the literary diligence of thoſe times, that, when he was at the univerſity, he roſe at four o'clock in the morning, and ſtudied till twelve at night. With ſuch induſtry, it is not ſurprizing that he acquired a large ſtock of learning; and his piety and virtue were equal to his learning. He has rendered his name immortal by his Apology for the Church of England, which was received with prodigious applauſe, and contributed, more than any other publication of that period, to promote the reformation from popery. The book was written in Latin; but for the uſe of the generality of the people, it was tranſlated into Engliſh, with remarkable accuracy, by Anne, lady Bacon, the ſecond of the four learned daughters of ſir John Coke. It was likewiſe tranſlated into Greek; and ſuch was the eſteem in which it was held, that there was a deſign of its being joined to the thirty-nine articles, and of cauſing it to be depoſited not only in all cathedrals and collegiate churches, but alſo in private houſes. The Apology long continued to be read; and the following character was given of it by biſhop Burnet, in the beginning of the preſent century: "As it was one of the firſt books publiſhed in "this (queen Elizabeth's) reign, ſo it was written with that "ſtrength and clearneſs, that it, together with the defence "of it, is ſtill to this day reckoned one of our beſt books." We are willing to believe that there are yet remaining ſome curious ſcholars in England, who are not ſtrangers to Jewel's Apology.

Among the learned divines who did not attain to the honour of the epiſcopal throne, was Alexander Nowell, dean of St. Paul's. He was a zealous advocate for the Reformation, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the defence of it, both by his ſermons and his writings. Beſides his controverſy with the Papiſts, he was the author of two catechiſms, the firſt of which went through many editions, and was tranſlated, from the Latin, into Engliſh and Greek. The ſecond was compoſed by himſelf in Greek, as well as in Latin, and was intended for the uſe of ſchools. It was tranſlated, likewiſe, into Hebrew; and if there was any conſiderable

demand for the impreſſion, that language muſt have entered much more into the literary education of young ſcholars than it has probably done in any ſucceeding period.

Lawrence Humphreys was kept back ſome years, by his puritanical principles, from conformity, but at length ſubmitted to wear the habits, and obtained ſeveral preferments, riſing to the dignity of dean of Glouceſter, and then of Wincheſter. He was ſuppoſed, however, to retain ſuch an averſion to the ceremonies of the public religion, that it was thought proper not to raiſe him to the rank of the prelacy, though he highly deſerved that diſtinction by his eminence in literature. The character given of him by Toby Matthews was, that he had read more fathers than Campian the Jeſuit had ſeen; and though this language was undoubtedly hyperbolical, it ſerves to ſhew that Humphreys ſtood in high reputation for the depth of his erudition. His works were not merely theological, though they were pretty numerous in that line; for he wrote concerning the Greek letters and the reading of Homer, and concerning the method of interpreting authors. A treatiſe was, likewiſe, compoſed by him on the ſubject of nobility; beſides which, we are indebted to him for a life of biſhop Jewel, which is the chief ſtorehouſe whence the ſucceeding accounts of that great prelate have been derived.

John Fox, like Humphreys, had his ſcruples with regard to conformity, and refuſed to ſubſcribe to the canons and ceremonies; but as he did not actually ſeparate from the church, we ſhall introduce him in this place. It is only as a divine that we here ſpeak of him, referring his hiſtorical character to another department of the literature of this period. Many theological tracts were written by him; but what above all the others is entitled to our notice, is a Latin letter which he addreſſed to the queen, in behalf of two anabaptiſts, who were condemned to be burnt. Perhaps he was the only clergyman of his time who had ſufficient moderation and enlargement of mind to plead againſt the capital

capital punishment of reputed heretics; and we are sorry to add, that his efforts in their favour were in vain.

Peter Baro we have already mentioned, as rising, in the rationality and liberality of his doctrinal opinions, far above his contemporaries. We shall only add, that he was born at Estampes in France, and educated in the university of Bourges, but, to avoid persecution, came over to England, where he had the good fortune to meet with a kind patron and benefactor in the lord treasurer Burleigh. There is reason to believe, from several circumstances, that this eminent statesman entertained more candid and catholic sentiments towards those who differed in their religious principles and practices, than the queen would permit him publicly to exercise.

The character of Bernard Gilpin, who was partly a nonconformist, but not a separatist, demands an applause to which mere literature, unaccompanied with such virtues, as he was endowed with, can never be entitled. He was possessed of learning; but his chief praise arises from his having been the great apostle of the reformation in the north of England, and from his having devoted his whole life to preaching, to hospitality, to the erection of schools, to the care of the poor, and to the providing for destitute churches; and by these means he diffused the most important knowledge, in an ignorant, and comparatively uncivilized country, far more extensively than he could have done by the publication of books. The worth and labours of this excellent man have been amply displayed in the present century, by the elegant pen of one of his own name and family.

The last divine of the established church whom we shall mention, has a claim to peculiar and extraordinary distinction: and, indeed, upon the whole, none of his contemporaries can be placed in comparison with him. We mean Richard Hooker, who was for some time master of the Temple, but who voluntarily quitted that station for the sake of a studious retirement, in which he wrote his famous

Eccleſiaſtical Polity. The epithets he is uſually diſtinguiſhed by, are of thoſe the judicious and the learned; and they are epithets to which he has an undoubted title; for his work reflects high credit on his powers of reaſoning, and the extent of his literature. It is admirable, likewiſe in point of compoſition; the ſtyle being a fine example of that language which flows on in a grave and even tenor, and which is particularly ſuited to argumentative and controverſial writing. There is reaſon to believe that it has been regarded as a model, by a Locke and a Hoadly. Whether every principle advanced by Hooker will ſtand the ſearching ſpirit, the increaſed knowledge, and the enlarged views of modern times, it is not our purpoſe here to determine. But this may ſafely be aſſerted, that the Eccleſiaſtical Polity will be read and ſtudied by the divines of the church of England, ſo long as they are ſolicitous to maintain the eſtabliſhed ſyſtem againſt the attacks of its opponents, and to urge ſome of the beſt arguments in its defence.

In looking back upon the catalogue of the national clergy whoſe literature was an ornament to the period we are treating of, it cannot have eſcaped our obſervation, that the larger number of them were raiſed to the epiſcopal dignity while the reſt, one or two inſtances excepted, were amply provided for. This is a circumſtance that reflects honour on queen Elizabeth and her adminiſtration. Indeed, the exertions of learning were then ſo neceſſary and ſo uſeful, amidſt the conflicts of oppoſition, that there was a peculiar propriety in calling the firſt theological ſcholars of the age to the higheſt eccleſiaſtical ſtations. For the credit and the advantage of the church of England, it is to be wiſhed that the time may never arrive, in which eminent talents and valuable publications ſhall not be the way to preferment.

Whilſt the public eſtabliſhment was ſupported by ſuch diſtinguiſhed names, the adherents of the Romiſh religion ſummoned all the abilities and literature they were poſſeſſed of, to ſupport their declining cauſe. The writers in defence of Popery were numerous; amongſt whom the

the principal were Nicholas Sanders, Thomas Stapleton, William Rainolds, Edmund Campian, Robert Turner, William Alan, Thomas Harding, and Robert Parſons.

Nicholas Sanders was the author of many tracts on the ſubjects debated of between the Roman Catholics and the Proteſtants; but there were two of his works which were more famous than the reſt. The firſt was a Treatiſe on the Viſible Monarchy of the Church, and the other an Account of the Origin and Progreſs of the Schiſm of England. They were both of them written in Latin. In the firſt, he maintained the ſupremacy of the ſee of Rome in its higheſt pretenſions, and in a manner that was particularly pleaſing to pope Pius the Fifth, who was the pontiff that iſſued the bull of excommunication againſt queen Elizabeth and her kingdom. The ſecond was ſo popular a work amongſt Sanders's own party, that it went through ſeveral editions, and was tranſlated into Italian and French. This author rendered himſelf conſpicuous, on various occaſions, by his oratorical abilities, and eſpecially at the council of Trent: but whatever talents he was endowed with, he never can be conſidered as an impartial hiſtorian. That he has been guilty of ſhameful miſrepreſentations with regard to facts, has ſo often been evinced by Burnet and other Proteſtant writers, that the matter cannot be denied; and we believe it would be readily acknowledged by the moderate and liberal Catholics of the preſent day.

Thomas Stapleton was a very voluminous writer in defence of his religion. We ſhall be able to judge of the extent of his works, when we are informed that they were publiſhed at Paris, in 1620, in four volumes, folio. Though there can be little doubt of their now reſting entirely at peace, it is a proof of the eſtimation they were originally held in, that they ſhould thus have been collected together, ſeveral years after the author's death. From the accounts we have concerning him, it appears that Stapleton was one of the eminent ſcholars of his time; but it was an eminence that was chiefly felt by thoſe of his own religious communion.

Concerning William Rainolds a very curious circumſtance is recorded. Being, in the earlier part of life, himſelf a Proteſtant, he had a brother, named John, who was a Papiſt. In their interviews, as brethren, they had frequent diſputes upon the ſubject of religion; the conſequence of which was, that they converted each other. John became a Puritan, and William a Roman Catholic. His converſion was ſincere and ardent; and he recommended himſelf in a particular manner by the perfect ſubmiſſion of his underſtanding and practice to the doctrines and injunctions of the Romiſh church. One of his principal publications, and from which we may judge of the complexion of his ſpirit, was a Treatiſe concerning the juſt Authority of the Chriſtian Republic over impious and heretical Princes.

Edmund Campian, who from a Proteſtant became a Papiſt, and entered into the order of the Jeſuits, met with a melancholy fate. Being ſent from abroad into his native country, to ſupport the cauſe of Rome, and to aſſiſt in converting the people of England, he was at length taken, impriſoned, confined, and executed at Tyburn. Such barbarity of treatment will now generally be execrated; eſpecially, if it ſhould be thought, as we apprehend was the caſe, that his offences were purely religious. Campian was a man of great reputation in his own party; and it is univerſally allowed that his private character was amiable, and his literary abilities above the common rank. Theſe he diſplayed in other methods beſides that of theological writing. A tragedy compoſed by him, entitled Nectar et Ambroſia, was acted, at Vienna, before the emperor of Germany, with much applauſe; but whether this circumſtance, conſidering the rude and unformed taſte of the age, was any proof of extraordinary merit, may, perhaps, be doubted. He wrote, likewiſe, the Hiſtory of Ireland, in two Books, which was afterwards publiſhed by ſir James Ware.

Robert Turner was a pupil of Campian's, and manifeſted his gratitude and attachment to the memory of his

tutor by writing his Life. Another of Turner's works was, an Account of the Life and Martyrdom of Mary Queen of Scotland. To his knowledge as a divine he added that of a politician, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by ſome panegyrical orations, relating to perſons and events that made a figure in that age. Two collections of his Epiſtles were thought of ſufficient importance to merit publication.

William Alan is a name of great eminence among the Roman Catholics of this period. He roſe to the rank of cardinal, and rendered himſelf particularly conſpicuous by his zeal for the converſion of his countrymen, and, what is much more to his diſcredit, by his zeal for the ſucceſs of the Spaniſh invaſion. Allowance being made for his conduct in this reſpect, and regarding him only in his literary capacity, he is entitled to be ſpoken of with commendation. It is ſaid, that taking him merely as an author, he was unqueſtionably, for matter, method, wit, learning, and language, one of the moſt conſiderable writers of his age, and that this is allowed by the greateſt of his enemies, and by the beſt critics. This encomium, which comes from the pen of a Proteſtant, is perhaps, carried to the exceſs of permitting candour to triumph over ſtrict juſtice. All cardinal Alan's writings are of a theological kind, and chiefly relate to the controverſies of the times; the conſequence of which is, that whatever merit there might be in their compoſition, they were only calculated to excite the attention of his contemporaries. His beſt work is eſteemed to be that which treats of the worſhip due to ſaints and relics, and in which he anſwered a publication that was ſuppoſed to have had for its author the lord treaſurer Burleigh. The ſtyle of Alan's tract has been highly applauded; but ſtyle alone, unleſs there be ſomething in the ſubject which is of that general nature that is permanently intereſting and important, will never demand the notice of a diſtant poſterity.

In Thomas Harding we meet with a very celebrated defender of the Romiſh faith. He was the mighty antago-

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niſt of biſhop Jewel, and was thought, by his own party at leaſt, to have obtained great glory in that capacity. His zeal in the controverſy is ſufficiently apparent from his having written no leſs than ſeven pieces againſt Jewel's Apology, in the way of Anſwer, Reply, and Rejoinder; for religious combatants are very anxious to have the laſt blow. That Harding was a man of real abilities we may be ſure of, becauſe we have it from the teſtimony of an enemy. Humphreys, in his Life of Biſhop Jewel, ſays, *In multis pares fuit, et ambo doctrinæ et eloquentiæ gloria præcellentes*: in many things they are equal, and both of them are eminently entitled to the praiſe of learning and eloquence.

But of all the Popiſh divines that flouriſhed in this period, the moſt noted, and the moſt formidable to the Proteſtants, was Robert Parſons. When we repreſent him as formidable, we do not mean that he was ſo by his writings alone, though they were very numerous, and equal in ability to thoſe of any of his brethren; but by his zeal, his activity, and his boldneſs, in ſupporting the pretenſions, and carrying on the deſigns and intrigues of the ſee of Rome. Having quitted the Proteſtant religion, in which he was educated, and retired abroad, he entered into the order of the Jeſuits, and was the firſt Engliſhman of that order that was ever ſent into England. No man could be fuller of the bigoted ſpirit of his new profeſſion, or a more implacable enemy to the principles of the Reformation. With theſe qualifications, he was regarded by the popes as a proper perſon to be put at the head of the miſſion to this kingdom; and he juſtified the choice that was made of him, by his indefatigable exertions in the buſineſs he was appointed to diſcharge. Being as hoſtile to the civil, as he was to the religious conſtitution of his native country, he did not ſtartle at the practice of rebellion and treaſon, but was ardent in promoting the Spaniſh invaſions.

To ſpeak of Robert Parſons in his literary capacity, we may obſerve, that his moſt celebrated work was his

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"Conference about the Succeſſion to the Crown of Eng-"land." The obvious intention of the work, which was publiſhed under the name of Doleman, was to ſupport the title of the infanta of Spain, againſt that of king James, after the death of queen Elizabeth. In purſuit of this point, the author aſſumed a bold and manly turn of ſentiment and reaſoning, which, however malignant in its immediate deſign, was capable of being applied to the moſt valuable and uſeful purpoſes. He made it his chief buſineſs to prove, that there are better titles to royalty and government than that of lineal deſcent; and that the people, in certain caſes, have a right to depoſe their princes, and to change the order of ſucceſſion. Thus was a Jeſuit the diſſeminator of the grand principles of political liberty; the diſſeminator of the principles which have ſince been maintained by our beſt writers, and converted to the ſuppreſſion of tyranny, and to the eſtabliſhment of our free conſtitution. It is no diſhonour to embrace truth from whatever quarter it comes, or with whatever view it may originally have been advanced.

We have before obſerved, that ſeveral of the Proteſtant divines of this period, who were puritanically inclined, did not ſeparate from the eſtabliſhed church; a conduct to which they were led, partly by their hopes that ſome of the changes they wiſhed for might at length be obtained, and ſtill more by the opinion they had imbibed, that it was their duty to ſubmit, even in things which they diſliked, to the authority of the magiſtrate in matters of religion. There were others, however, who had ſuch an averſion to certain ceremonies and veſtments, and to the prelacy in general, that they could not comply with the terms of conformity. One of the moſt reſpectable of this ſet of men was David Whitehead, a profound ſcholar, and who was deemed an excellent profeſſor of theology. He had been a chaplain to Anna Bullen, and was intended by Cranmer for a biſhoprick in Ireland. On the acceſſion of queen Elizabeth, he was choſen to be one of the diſputants againſt the popiſh biſhops; and her majeſty had ſuch an

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opinion of his abilities and learning, joined, perhaps, with ſome partiality to him from his former connection with her mother, that he was offered the archbiſhoprick of Canterbury. However, he not only declined this high ſtation, but refuſed to accept of any preferment in the church as it then ſtood. He ſeems to have been a quiet and moderate man, who, though he could not unite with the eſtabliſhment, did not enter into the angry conteſts of the times, but endeavoured to do as much good as he was able by private preaching.

Thomas Sampſon appears to have been a more determined and active Puritan than Whitehead. He wrote zealouſly againſt the clerical habits, and ſtrongly objected to ſeveral parts of the eccleſiaſtical ſervice. His perſeverance in the cauſe he had eſpouſed occaſioned him to be impriſoned; and by the particular command of the queen, he was deprived of the deanery of Chriſt-Church, Oxford, to which he had been promoted. Sampſon is underſtood to have poſſeſſed a very conſiderable portion of the learning that was cultivated in that age.

But the moſt eminent divine among the Puritans of this reign was Thomas Cartwright, ſome time Lady Margaret's Profeſſor at Cambridge. He was, indeed, the head of the party, and qualified to ſuſtain that character by his abilities, his zeal, his literature, and his writings. For his attachment to the principles he had embraced, he went through a variety of ſufferings; being harraſſed by ſuſpenſions, deprivations, and a long impriſonment. In the heat of controverſy, Whitgift charged him with want of learning, and aſſerted, that he had made extracts from other men's notes, and that he had ſcarcely read one of the ancient authors he had quoted. To this charge Cartwright modeſtly replied, that as to great reading he would let it paſs; for if Whitgift had read all the Fathers, and he ſcarcely one, it would eaſily appear to the world by their writings. Indeed, nothing could be more abſurd and falſe than the angry prelate's accuſation; for, not to mention

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that it was confuted by Cartwright's works, Beza, who was, undoubtedly, a competent judge, ſaid of him, that there was not a more learned man under the ſun. The productions of our author were not confined to the points in debate between the eſtabliſhed Clergy and the Puritans; for ſeveral treatiſes were written by him of a more general nature, among which his Confutation of the Rhemiſh Tranſlation of the New Teſtament was particularly celebrated. He had been invited to undertake this taſk by ſome of the principal men and firſt ſcholars of the age. At length, after his various labours and conflicts, Cartwright obtained a peaceful aſylum, by the favour of Robert earl of Leiceſter, who made him governor of his hoſpital at Warwick, where he ended his days, in much eſteem for his moderate, prudent, and pious behaviour.

Robert Brown muſt not be omitted: for though he was not particularly diſtinguiſhed by his literary attainments, he has acquired ſome degree of celebrity by having been the author of a ſect, called after his own name, the Sect of the Browniſts, who were very rigid and narrow in points of diſcipline, and proceeded ſo far as to deny that the Church of England was a true church, and that her miniſters were rightly ordained. What renders theſe ſeparatiſts more worthy of notice is, that they became, in time, the origin of the Independents, whoſe conſequence in the hiſtory of this country will hereafter demand our attention. As to Brown himſelf, he was a man of a violent and ungovernable ſpirit. At length, after all the conteſts he had engaged in, he returned into the boſom of that church which he had pronounced to be popiſh and antichriſtian, and all the ordinances and ſacraments of which he had declared to be invalid. He retained to the laſt the heat of his temper.

A perſon of a far more reſpectable and uſeful character was William Perkins. Though his principles led him to Nonconformity, and his practice was ſuitable to his principles, he was of a peaceable behaviour, and refrained from

from any attacks upon the eſtabliſhed religion. He applied himſelf chiefly to preaching and to practical writing, in which reſpect he became one of the moſt famous divines of his time. Though he was ſummoned once or twice before the High Commiſſion-Court, the moderation of his temper, and his reputation in the literary world, procured him a diſpenſation from the perſecution to which his brethren were expoſed. Being a ſtrict follower of Calvin, he publiſhed ſeveral treatiſes in favour of the doctrines of that reformer, which involved him in a controverſy with the celebrated Arminius. Such was his diligence, that, though he died at the age of only forty-four years, his works comprehended three volumes in folio. If we are not miſinformed, the writings of Mr. Perkins are ſtill held in great eſteem, and continue to be much read, among the Calviniſtic Diſſenters.

With regard to the Scottiſh Divines of this period, we ſhall only mention John Knox, the luſtre of whoſe name has obſcured the reputation of thoſe who were his fellow-labourers in the cauſe of the Reformation. Such perſons as entirely approve of the religious eſtabliſhment of Scotland, which was almoſt wholly the reſult of his zeal and activity, muſt entertain the higheſt reſpect for his memory. He was undoubtedly a man of diſtinguiſhed abilities, and he had a rough and bold eloquence, which was admirably calculated to produce all its effect among the people to whom it was addreſſed. In learning he ſtood upon a level with ſome of the moſt celebrated of his contemporaries; but it is impoſſible to ſpeak with approbation of his ſpirit and temper. There was a harſhneſs and coarſeneſs in his manners, that, in this age at leaſt, muſt appear exceedingly diſguſting. Nevertheleſs, when every deduction is made from his merit, it muſt be acknowledged, that his talents were fitted in an extraordinary degree for the execution of the buſineſs in which he was engaged. The praiſe of ſincerity and piety cannot be denied him, whilſt it is to be regretted that theſe virtues were accompanied

panied with so narrow and bigoted a turn of mind. In the time of John Knox, the having suffered persecution did not hinder men from exercising persecution, when it was in their power.

Amidst the endless theological productions of the age, ethics, as a distinct science, was very imperfectly cultivated. Ethical writing was not, however, totally neglected. In Edward the Sixth's reign, William Baldwyn, one of the poets of that reign, published a work, which he intitled, "A Treatise of Moral Philosophy, containing the Sayings of the Wise." This work, in the time of queen Elizabeth, was greatly enlarged, and became so popular a book, that it went through several editions. We are not to suppose that it contained any depth of enquiry with regard to ethical subjects; for it was only a collection of maxims and observations, taken from various authors, ancient and modern. Another production of a similar nature, but which did not attain to an equal degree of popularity, was called the "Book of Wisdom." "An Oration on the true Tranquility of the Mind" was published by one Bernard, of which we can only say, that it has not, like the Discourse of Volusenus on the same subject (formerly mentioned), acquired the notice of posterity.

The principal efforts of moral writing during this period consisted in translations from some of the best ancient philosophers. Marcus Aurelius's Meditations, Seneca upon Benefits, Cicero's Offices, his Tusculan Questions, his Old Age, his Friendship, his Paradoxes, and his Dream of Scipio, were the works that were translated; and such works could not be given in the English language, without promoting, in a certain degree, the ethical knowledge of our contrymen. Nevertheless, original productions of this kind were almost totally unknown amongst us, till at length, towards the close of the queen's reign, the public received a high gratification from the appearance of the First Part of Francis Bacon's Essays; concerning which we need not say, that they opened a rich

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treasury of moral observation, and that they were worthy of the great and comprehensive mind from which they proceeded. The name of Essays was then new to the world, and perhaps had been derived from Montaigne. Thus did Bacon introduce into England a species of writing which hath since been largely cultivated, which hath produced a vast number of beautiful compositions, which constitutes a fine part of modern literature, and the history of which, and of its effects on the understanding and manners of men, will hereafter afford matter of useful and entertaining discussion *.

* Burnet, Hume, Neal, Biographia Britannica, Historical Dictionary, Berkenhout, Herbert, &c. &c.

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BRITISH AND FOREIGN HISTORY;

For the Year 1789.

CHAP. I.

Affairs of France. New Miniſtry. Perſecution of Mr. de Calonne. Appointment of the Archbiſhop of Touloufe. Retrenchments and Reforms. Diſſolution of the Notables.

THE perſons, appointed by the king of France to ſucceed to the vacant offices of adminiſtration at the period of the diſmiſſion of Mr. de Calonne, were Mr. Bouvard de Fourqueux to the place of controller-general, and Mr. de Lamoignon to that of keeper of the ſeals. The nomination of the former ſeems to have been regarded only as a matter of temporary accommodation; but from the efforts of Mr. de Lamoignon ſomething conſiderable was expected. He bore the character of a man, who had ſtudied the principles of government upon a comprehenſive ſcale, and who was more diſpoſed to conform himſelf to the unalterable dictates of juſtice and truth, than to yield to the precarious current of party and intrigue. We ſhall preſently ſee how he ſupported this reputation. Meanwhile the diſmiſſion of Mr. de Calonne by no means aſſumed the appearance of a diſgrace. The king informed him, that the conjuncture of affairs demanded this ſacrifice; but added, that it was not leſs the intention of government to proſecute his plans, and requeſted him to remain at Verſailles, that he might aſſiſt with his counſels his ſucceſſor in office.

It was within three days after this miniſterial revolution, that Mr. Necker publiſhed his anſwer to the ſpeech of Mr. de Calonne, delivered at the opening of the aſſembly of notables. The purpoſe of the author was to prove the validity of the aſſertions of the Compte Rendu au Roi en 1781, or in other words that France had at that time poſſeſſed a clear ſurplus of ordinary revenue to the amount of 425,000*l.* This ſtatement, though of an older date than the adminiſtration of Mr. de Calonne, was fraught with inferences that certainly bore hard upon that ſtateſman, who in the year 1787 acknowledged a deficit to the amount of 4,796,000*l.*

It is impoſſible for us to enter minutely into the queſtion between theſe celebrated combatants. Thoſe, to whom the diſcuſſion may appear intereſting, will find ample materials in their reſpective publications. To thoſe, who ſhall be deſirous of that ſort of preſumptive evidence, which ariſes, whether from the character and diſpoſition of the parties, or from the hiſtorical probability of their opinions, it is hoped, that our narrative, both of the preceding tranſactions, and of thoſe which are to follow, will afford ſome ſatisfaction. Meanwhile popular predilection produced its full effect in the preſent judgment that was formed of the controverſy. Mr. Necker triumphed. His Compte Rendu, and his Defence, were conſulted as the depoſitaries of all that was moſt authentic in the finances of France. The character of the late miniſter was loaded with every ſpecies of obloquy. He had formerly been ſtigmatiſed as the raſh and imprudent invader of the immunities of the opulent, as the inconſiſtent ſlave of temporary enthuſiaſm, as the benevolent ſtateſman, who knew not how to refuſe a requeſt, and the diſſipated character, who was unable to deny himſelf any inordinate gratification. He was now regarded in a new light. He was the public defaulter of unaccounted millions. He had exceeded every former example of prodigality and profligacy. Neither honour, nor the love of his country, nor the fear of detection, had been able to reſtrain him; and in a ſhort adminiſtration of three years and a half he had reduced France, from a ſtate of enviable and incredible proſperity, to the brink of a ruin, from which the effort of almoſt no abilities would be ſufficient to recover her.

The conſequences of this perſuaſion were ſoon viſible. The notables reſumed their ſittings on the fifteenth of April 1787. The king, influenced, it is probable, by certain ſymptoms of the temper of the aſſembly, cauſed it to be ſignified to the bureaux, that it was his pleaſure that they ſhould reſtrict their attention to the ſubjects he had ſubmitted to their conſideration, without ſuffering themſelves to be diverted to any foreign obſervations. But this meſſage, though it produced its effect upon the majority of the aſſembly, did not altogether ſuppreſs the effects of the prevalent diſpoſition. The marquis de la Fayette, a young nobleman, who had appeared as a volunteer in the cauſe of civil liberty upon the plains of America, was eager to exhibit himſelf as a patriotic citizen of his native country. Led away, it may be, by the current of popular opinion, he deemed Mr. de Calonne a criminal againſt the welfare and character of France, and imagined he could not be more uſefully or honourably employed, than in denouncing ſuch a miniſter as a proper victim to the majeſty of public juſtice. He accordingly preſented a memorial to this purpoſe to the conſideration of his brethren of the notables.

The memorial of the marquis de la Fayette was in part formed upon the model of the memorial for the eſtabliſhment of a council of finances, which had been aſcribed to the archbiſhop of Toulouſe. Its chief topic was the exchange of the county of Sancerre, which had been purchaſed on the part of the king, partly by the ceſſion of certain lands, and partly in money, from the baron d'Eſpagnac, elder brother of the abbé d'Eſpagnac the celebrated

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ſtock-jobber. This exchange had been a ſubject of negociation in the year 1777; and ſubſequently to that period a ſum of 41,000*l.* had been advanced to the baron. The tranſaction however remained in ſuſpenſe; and, ſoon after the appointment of Mr. de Calonne in 1783, the count de Vergennes ſuggeſted to that miniſter the propriety of its being completed, the ſum advanced remaining at preſent as a ſort of deficit upon the department of foreign affairs. By Mr. de Calonne ſome change was made in the demeſne lands to be ceded to the baron d'Eſpagnac, and a number of ſmaller portions were ſubſtituted in the room of the foreſt of Ruſſi, which the comptroller-general thought proper to retain in the hands of government. The royal aſſent was given to the terms of exchange in March 1784; and ſoon after that period a ſecond ſum of 41,000*l.* was paid to the baron d'Eſpagnac, which, together with the ſpecified lands, was ſtated to be a juſt equivalent for the county of Sancerre. The exchange was made with a reſerve, as had been the uſual practice, of a reference to the chamber of accounts, who were authoriſed to correct and alter the terms, ſo as to render them moſt conformable to their ideas of juſtice. In the mean time Mr. de Calonne had openly purchaſed of the baron d'Eſpagnac the diſtrict of Hattonchatel, a part of the baron's new acquiſitions, in the neighbourhood of his paternal eſtate of Hanonville in Lorraine, upon proviſo that the exchange ſhould be confirmed by the proper court. The chamber of accounts is the higheſt juriſdiction in France, next after the parliament of Paris, and conſtituted in a manner conſiderably ſimilar; and it is to be ſuppoſed, that their deciſion would be founded in principles of general juſtice. Such however is the tedioufneſs of forms, that the point was ſtill undecided at the reſignation of Mr. de Calonne, in April 1787, the baron d'Eſpagnac claiming a ſtill further compenſation, and the court not having yet determined whether he had not received more than an equivalent.

The proſecution recommended by the marquis de la Fayette was not adopted by the aſſembly of notables; but the principles of the memorial from which he had derived his materials ſeemed at this time to be completely imbibed by that illuſtrious body. In conformity to the royal recommendation, they attempted no proceeding that had not the appearance of immediately riſing out of the ſubjects ſubmitted to their examination; but they contrived to render thoſe ſubjects themſelves the vehicle and occaſion of publiſhing their ſentiments on the politics of the day. In a word, they heſitated not to involve themſelves in a perſonal controverſy with the ex-miniſter, and to reduce the public and poſterity to the direct alternative of either believing Mr. de Calonne a profligate and unprincipled ſtateſman, or of confeſſing that the notables countenanced imputations of a criminal nature upon trivial grounds, and ſtooped to become the dupes of individuals that were actuated ſolely by inordinate ambition.

The topics that now employed the diſcuſſion of the aſſembly, were thoſe that conſtituted the third head of the project of Mr. de Calonne, and related to the alienation and improvement of the royal domains. In the obſervations that they digeſted upon this ſubject, they remarked with ſeverity upon a principle advanced by the miniſter, "that the feudal ſuperiority, by which all landed pro-

perty was obliged to contribute to the defence and maintenance of the whole, was perpetual, univerſal, and inſeparable from the monarchy." They aſſerted the great domains of the crown, as matters now ſtood, to be inalienable, and declared that ſuch modifications as ſhould inſpire confidence into the purchaſers of them, could only be introduced by the nation itſelf, in an aſſembly convened for that purpoſe. As there were great abuſes in certain conceſſions that had been made under this head, the notables intreated the ſovereign to cauſe an account to be laid before him of thoſe which had taken place ſince his acceſſion to the throne, in order to break off ſuch diſadvantageous engagements as were not yet completed, and to aboliſh thoſe in which it ſhould appear that the actual loſs to the crown exceeded the intrinſic value of the property acquired. They pretended, that abuſes of a very alarming deſcription would be found in certain tranſactions of this ſort that were of a recent date. They ſubjoined an alluſion to certain claims in favour of the royal domains that had been advanced during the adminiſtration of Mr. de Calonne; and intreated the king to ſoften the rigour of the principles upon which government acted in its controverſies with individuals.

It was at this time that the king, whether from a wiſh to conciliate the favour of the notables, or becauſe the ſame influence, which ſo viſibly appeared in the proceedings of that aſſembly, now began to extend itſelf to the councils of the ſovereign, thought proper to change his mode of conduct towards Mr. de Calonne. His original diſmiſſion from office was ſoftened by every appearance of kindneſs and eſteem; but he was deſtined ultimately to experience a degree of diſcountenance greater than uſually falls to the lot of diſgraced miniſters. On the nineteenth of April he was baniſhed to his eſtate of Hanonville in the province of Lorraine; and we ſhall preſently ſee him ſeeking refuge in foreign countries, from the extraordinary clamour and odium that were excited againſt him. Mr. Necker had in the preceding week been alſo exiled to a diſtance of twenty leagues from Paris, it being thought neceſſary that ſome mark of royal diſpleaſure ſhould be awarded againſt the man, who, without the approbation of government, had publiſhed remarks and information upon the ſubject of the finances.

It is the peculiarity of the hiſtory of Mr. de Calonne, that while his character was ſeverely ſtigmatiſed, and his meaſures vehemently oppoſed, thoſe meaſures were univerſally confeſſed to be founded in genuine and comprehenſive maxims of policy. His ſucceſſors in office were unable to diſcover any thing that could ſpeciouſly be ſubſtituted in the room of what he had ſuggeſted; and, however little his propoſals might accord with the prejudices of men long inured to a ſyſtem of practical error, they ſeemed to confeſs, that the greatneſs of the emergency would admit of no leſs violent a remedy. It might be thought, that at firſt miniſters were taken by ſurpriſe, and that, as it frequently happens, the eagerneſs of intrigue to effect the downfall of a rival, had outrun the patriotiſm which ſhould have meditated the welfare of their country. But it was in vain that the rapidity of the vortex in which they were hurried along gradually ſubſided. Neither the lapſe of time, nor the partial variations that affected the perſons of miniſters, introduced any variation of policy; and, if they did

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not exactly model themſelves upon the ideas of their predeceſſor, this plainly appears to have been rather owing to the mediocrity of their talents, than to the dictates of their judgment.

The third part of the project prepared for the notables having now been ſufficiently diſcuſſed, it became time to introduce the remaining diviſion. That this might be done with the greater ſolemnity, which ſeems now to have been regarded as coincident with dignity and demonſtration, it was brought forward by the king in perſon, who for that purpoſe went down to the aſſembly of notables on the twenty-third of April.

The ſpeech of the ſovereign upon this occaſion began with a retroſpect to the ſubjects of the former diviſions. He declared his intention, in conformity with their repreſentations, to preſerve to the two firſt orders of the ſtate that precedency in the provincial aſſemblies, which they had been accuſtomed to enjoy in all ſimilar caſes. He expreſſed himſelf ſatisfied with the readineſs which the biſhops and archbiſhops had expreſſed to contribute their ſhare to defray the public expences; and conſented to liſten to their repreſentations reſpecting the form of doing it, and the means to be adopted for the liquidation of their corporate debt. He would examine the ſuggeſtions of the aſſembly reſpecting the gabelle, and ſhould eſteem himſelf happy when he ſhould be able to aboliſh the very name of ſo diſaſtrous an impoſt.

With regard to the meaſures to be farther propoſed, the king obſerved, that he had not attempted to conceal the alarming difference between the receipt of government and its expenditure, and that the papers he had directed to be laid before the aſſembly would ſufficiently demonſtrate its reality. He was firmly reſolved to adopt the moſt efficacious meaſures to annihilate the exiſting deficit, and to prevent its renewal at any future period. He knew, that one of the moſt deſirable meaſures for that purpoſe was the practice of economy; and he had meditated certain reforms in the expenditure, which were calculated to produce an immediate ſaving of 1,250,000*l.* He alſo propoſed to adopt a new tax in the mode of a ſtamp duty, and to introduce a ſyſtem proper to encounter the difficulties of the redemptions of capital at fixed periods, which had been made the condition of certain loans. But the effect of theſe united meaſures would be inadequate to the emergency. The king would therefore be obliged to have recourſe to a meaſure more painful to him than all the reſt, that of augmenting the amount of the impoſt upon land; but of the quantity of this augmentation he was unable to judge, till the ſum of the deficit remaining after the application of the other remedies had been aſcertained. He concluded with an earneſt recommendation of celerity. To them was committed the glory of France, and they were called upon to diſplay the advantage he poſſeſſed in governing a nation, whoſe reſources, like their love for their kings, were inexhauſtible.

The ſpeech of the king was followed by that of the keeper of the ſeals. He obſerved, that, when the ſovereign had called them together to conſult them reſpecting the means of repreſſing financial abuſes, of remedying the conſequent evils, and relieving the people, they were not and could not have been informed of the true ſtate of affairs. They had done therefore what they ought to have done; propoſed doubts,

ſtarted objections, called for elucidations, and from animated diſcuſſion ſtruck out uſeful truth. They would have betrayed at once their own honour and his majeſty's intentions, if in ſuch circumſtances they had not exhibited that generous courage, which is equally characteriſtic of the faithful ſubject and the patriotic citizen. The king had expected from them zeal and loyalty, and he had not been diſappointed. It was at length however incumbent upon them to finiſh the great project which the ſovereign had delineated, and to carry into act thoſe emotions of gratitude with which they could not fail to be impreſſed.

The controller-general now proceeded to communicate to them the memorials of the fourth diviſion. We have already obſerved, that the object of this diviſion was to connect the projected reforms with the melioration of the finances, and to particularife the ſchemes of economy, regulation, and credit, that might derive from or be connected with them. They now came before the aſſembly in a mutilated ſtate. The precarious adminiſtration that ſat at the helm of affairs were unwilling to undertake too much. Accordingly, only two memorials, that were conceived to be moſt immediately neceſſary, were brought forward; the firſt upon the ſubject of the ſtamp duty, and the ſecond of the redemption at fixed periods of the exiſting loans.

The ſtamp duty was recommended by the well-known, but fallacious argument, that upon the preſent ſyſtem of taxation many opulent perſons, but whoſe property was not veſted in land, eſcaped from the other modes of contributing to the national revenue. Stamp duties however of a certain kind, were not unknown to the finances of France. In many provinces of that kingdom deeds and conveyances of property, as well as the different proceedings and deciſions of the courts of judicature, had been ſubject to an impoſition of this ſort for more than a century. It was now propoſed as a preliminary ſtep, in conformity to the ideas of equaliſation that pervaded the project of Mr. de Calonne, to extend the exiſting tax to every part of the kingdom; granting however to the provinces that had been hitherto exempted, a compenſation upon the taille or ſome ſimilar tax, in order that no new burthen might ariſe from this regulation. It was farther intended to extend the ſtamp duties to every object that is probably ſubject to them in any part of Europe; commiſſions, brevets, preſentations, letters of nobility, of naturaliſation, pardons, paſſports, news-papers, periodical publications, certificates, government ſtock, lottery tickets, deputations, policies, bills of exchange, receipts, engravings, cards, and dice. It was even declared neceſſary to ſubject all certificates and bills of a prior date to the ſtamp office, before they could be produced in evidence in a court of juſtice.

In the ſecond memorial it was obſerved, that the well-founded deſire of giving to the public loans a more rapid ſucceſs, had, particularly ſince the year 1776 [at which period Mr. Necker had ſucceeded to the adminiſtration], ſuggeſted the method of engaging government to an aſſigned and ſpeedy period of redemption. The eaſe of the moment had been the principal inducement to this expedient. The embarraſſment had not then been recollected, which, falling with accumulating and concentrated force upon a ſubſequent period, now rendered a powerful and immediate re-

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medy indiſpenſible. This remedy might either be found in a direct ſyſtem of taxation, in a mixed ſyſtem of taxation and ſucceſſive loans, or in loans only. The laſt method was preferred. By ſucceſſive loans of 2,080,000*l.* for four years; 1,660,000*l.* per annum for the fifth and ſixth; 1,460,000*l.* for the ſeventh; 1,375,000*l.* per annum for the eighth, ninth, and tenth; and 1,000,000*l.* per annum for the fifteen following years, the redemption of theſe loans to be diſtributed through a period of fifteen years reſpectively, it was conceived, that not only the deficit would be immediately lightened to the amount of 2,080,000*l*, but that the operation of theſe loans combining with the propoſed reforms, the ſtamp duty, and the equaliſation of the land-tax, all apprehenſion of financial embarraſſment would be ſuperſeded.

The notables, as they proceeded in their labours, advanced in their pretenſions. It had been the original intention of government, without communicating to them legiſlative powers, or furniſhing them with original documents, to obtain their approbation of certain meaſures, and overawe with their ſupport the reſiſtance of the parliaments. This was deemed to be practicable, provided the meaſures ſuggeſted were incontrovertibly equitable in their own nature, and they were aſſured of the extent of the emergency under the venerable ſanction of the word of the ſovereign. But they preſently over-ſtepped the limits that had been marked out for them. The continuance of their deliberations, the ſacrifice of an eminent ſervant of government that had been evidently made at their ſhrine, gave them a full ſenſe of the importance of their functions. They now eagerly caught at the intimation of the ſovereign reſpecting certain papers which he had directed to be laid before the aſſembly, and, among other obſervations, it was remarked by one of the bureaux, in its addreſs of thanks for the ſpeech of the king, that a proſpectus of the intended ſavings and reforms, and a circumſtantial detail of the annual receipt and expenditure, were indiſpenſibly neceſſary to enable them to judge whether any additional taxes were requiſite, to what amount it would be neceſſary to carry them, and to what period it would be deſirable to extend them.

It was at this period, and on the firſt of May, that the archbiſhop of Toulouſe was called to the adminiſtration, being appointed preſident of the council of finances. This prelate had hitherto appeared in the light of the moſt active member of the aſſembly of notables, or at leaſt as the member whoſe principles and views had been moſt cordially received by the meeting in general. He ſeemed to have modelled his conduct upon the principles of political liberty, at leaſt as far as the preſent poſture and ſentiments of the nation appeared to admit. In his memorial for the eſtabliſhment of a new council of finance, which is to be conſidered as comprehending a general view of his public ſentiments, and which had its ſhare in occaſioning the diſgrace of Mr. de Calonne, he vehemently argues againſt the myſterious mode of adminiſtering the public revenue that at preſent prevailed, and cenſures the meaſure of convoking the notables, becauſe that aſſembly was wholly incompetent to the taſk of re-modelling the conſtitution. Theſe doctrines however may probably be conſidered as partly ſuggeſted to him by motives of ambition. He was long known to have aimed at raiſing himſelf to be firſt

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miniſter of France; and it is not unfrequent, in characters that do not riſe to ſuperlative excellence, to behold the ſame man the ardent champion of liberty while in a private ſtation, and the undaunted aſſertor of tyranny when the tyrant has choſen him for the medium of delegated power. It is however to be preſumed, that the archbiſhop was one of the firſt men among our Gallic neighbours that recommended himſelf to office by the adoption of republican ſentiments; and it is to be regarded as no equivocal ſymptom of the revolution that had taken place in the political prepoſſeſſions of his countrymen. It was on the following day that Mr. de Fourqueux reſigned the office of controller-general, and Mr. de Villedeuil was appointed to ſucceed him.

It was on the ſecond day after the promotion of the archbiſhop had been declared, that the accounts of the receipt and expenditure of the years 1785 and 1786 were communicated to the notables. They were ſpeedily followed by an explanatory account of the retrenchments and reforms intended to be introduced into the civil liſt, which were now carried to the amount of 1,660,000*l.* per annum. Theſe proceedings appear to have been thought to afford a favourable opportunity for introducing a ſmall loan of 250,000*l*, which was at this time neceſſary to anſwer the unavoidable demands of government. The edict for raiſing this ſum, through the medium of life-annuities, was regiſtered without difficulty by the parliament of Paris, on the ſeventh of May, the ſame day upon which the paper of retrenchments was communicated to the notables. The delay in this latter inſtance was probably intended by the archbiſhop, as a ſort of accommodation to the pride and lofty pretenſions of the juridical corps. The papers of revenue communicated to the notables were not permitted to be copied by the members of that aſſembly.

The preamble to the loan, and the declaration to the notables, conſiſted of ideas ſimilar to each other. The king promiſed himſelf to be able to carry the ſavings at leaſt to the ſpecified amount. He could have wiſhed to extend his views ſtill farther; but he would have been unwilling to excite expectations that he was not certain to fulfil. If a ſtill ſeverer economy could be introduced, its effects ſhould be religiouſly preſerved for the general alleviation of the burthens of the people. The retrenchments, that were perſonal to himſelf and his family, would always be thoſe that were leaſt painful to his feelings, and that he ſhould have the greateſt promptitude to execute. The deficit of the preſent year, it was ſaid, had been diſcovered by the notables to amount to 3,500,000*l*, and they had been of opinion with himſelf, that it was neceſſary to provide for its extinction through the medium of ſucceſſive loans. In making theſe loans the king declared his reſolution to mortgage to their holders a certain portion of the public revenue, which ſhould be extinguiſhed as they were diminiſhed, and thus gradually converted to the relief of the nation at large.

The adminiſtration of the archbiſhop appeared to commence with a ſufficient degree of popularity and eclat. The declaration of retrenchments was received by the notables with the moſt unbounded expreſſions of gratitude. They applauded the king upon the height to which his paternal feelings for his people had ſoared, and declared that no language could do juſtice to the ſentiments

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with which they were pervaded in the perusal. It was about the same time that they suggested to the king the propriety of appointing an efficient council of finances, that should possess an unlimited check upon the principal minister of revenue; but, not to mention that they derived this idea from the suggestions of the present minister, it was also qualified with many invectives against the inconsistency and perfidy of the ministerial system of Mr. de Calonne, and with an express remark, that, whatever confidence they owed to the choice of the sovereign in this critical period, the fewer precautions they had to employ against the person of the minister, the more judicious would it be to guard against the imperfections of his office, and to protect him from the injurious influence of indiscreet solicitations.

The archbishop made his first personal appearance in the assembly of notables, in the character of minister, on the ninth of May. Upon this occasion he entered into a detail of many of the objects of the proposed retrenchment. It extended with considerable severity through the various departments of the royal households; it included the sale of the castles of Choisi, la Meute, Madrid, Vincennes, and Blois; and it professed to reduce the pension list to the annual amount of 750,000 *l.* Upon this and other subjects, connected with the fourth division, the notables communicated their sentiments to the king, by a committee of their body, four days after the ministerial conference. But, though so small a period of time had elapsed, we can scarcely avoid perceiving in their language some relaxation of the ministerial and courtly style they had lately adopted.

They particularly fixed their attention upon the desired publicity of the national revenue. They insisted upon the necessity of passing all accounts at the treasury once every six months, and of communicating them to the public once a year. This would be found the only effectual expedient for bridling the minister of finance, for giving security to the public creditor, and for protecting the subject against the intrusion of arbitrary burthens. They added, that it was of the utmost importance, that pecuniary douceurs should not be granted but at the winding up of the accounts of the year, that no loan should ever be extended or exceeded, and that the operations of the caisse d'amortissement, and the general estimates for each ensuing year, should be submitted to the inspection and revisal of the projected council of finances.

The answer of the king was delivered to the different bureaux on the following day. He felt a considerable satisfaction in observing, that there was scarcely any expedient suggested to him by the assembly that he had not himself already adopted. He would take into consideration their views respecting the establishment of a council of finances, but the constitution of such a council required mature consideration. He had determined to publish an account of the national receipt and expenditure, examined and approved by such a council, at least once in three years, and would consider whether such a measure could with propriety be introduced more frequently. He was also disposed, in addition to the proposed reduction of the pension list, regularly to make public the pensions and douceurs he should bestow, and he was persuaded this publication would be an additional favour to those who were thought worthy of national rewards.

On

On the fifteenth of May, the archbishop of Toulouse went down to the assembly, to present to them such remaining objects as might be proper for their discussion, and to urge them to a speedy conclusion of such deliberations as remained yet unfinished. With respect to the grand consideration of the deficit, he represented the retrenchments as one of the most considerable means for removing it: but, however rigorously they were extended, they were still insufficient. The king therefore found it necessary, though with the extremest regret, and as his last resource, to have recourse to farther impositions. The articles of this sort suggested by the archbishop of Toulouse were, the stamp duty, with a rate somewhat more extended than that which had been first proposed; an increase of the capitation upon houses; and a modification of the impôt territorial, by which it should be made to produce 1,041,000*l.* per annum more than the existing vingtièmes.

The bureaux immediately proceeded to take these proposals into consideration, and presented a sort of abridgment of their different deliberations in their resolutions of the nineteenth of May. They complained, that the articles of receipt and expenditure which had been laid before them were incorrect, and contradicted each other. Nothing, they observed, could be more painful, than, after a lapse of four years of peace, to impose new taxes upon the nation to the amount of 2,083,000*l.* per annum. It was necessary, in the first place, to attempt to remove the deficit by saving and economy; but, if this method were too tedious for the emergency, they must wholly refer the question of taxation to the prudence and discretion of the sovereign. It was not within their powers either to propose different taxes, or to adopt and sanction those which had been proposed. The land-tax in particular they professed to have no authority to vote; at the same time acknowledging, that, if it took place, it seemed just that the privileged bodies should not be exempted from the contribution. But they recommended, that the name of vingtièmes should still be preserved, to prevent the quota of each individual from being raised, and to hinder the tax, now changed into a different form, from returning again in its own, while its substitute should at the same time continue to exist. They were of opinion, that the city of Paris, the great increase of whose population was so injurious to the kingdom at large, should be more heavily taxed than the labouring rustic. They however rejected the capitation upon houses, as subject to too great inconveniences. The stamp duty appeared the least burthensome, and it was perhaps desirable to raise it to a still greater amount in alleviation of the other taxes, provided it were imposed only upon objects the most capable to bear it.

With respect to the provincial assemblies, they intreated the king to establish them, as he had promised to do, in the manner recommended by the notables. They wished to see the proposed retrenchments precisely marked out, and even carried into execution prior to the period of their separation. Lastly, they recurred to the steps which they deemed most efficacious for preventing the re-appearance of the present disorders in any future period. They recommended the abolition of all subordinate treasuries; they severely condemned the practice of anticipations, at a time when the collectors,

who

who were accuſtomed to an eighteen months credit, had large ſums of the public money in their hands. They repeated their recommendation of an efficient council of finances; and urged an annual publication of the accounts of government, in preference to a triennial one, which they profeſſed to be apprehenſive would be found a nugatory meaſure.

Beſide theſe conſiderations immediately relative to the ſubject of their meeting, a motion was about this time offered to one of the bureaux by the duke de Rochefoucault, tending to the melioration of the ſtate of the French proteſtants, and the reform of the ſyſtem of criminal law; but the motion was rejected. A propoſition by the marquis de la Fayette to one of the other bureaux was more favourably received, they having reſolved, at his inſtigation, to requeſt the king to grant a civil eſtabliſhment to the proteſtants of the kingdom.

The notables having now anſwered, as far as they could be induced to anſwer, the purpoſes for which they had been aſſembled by government, were diſſolved by the ſovereign on the twenty-fifth of May. In his ſpeech upon this occaſion, he commended their exertions, and particularly thanked them for having prepared the meaſure, which he ſo ardently deſired, of producing a level between the receipt and the expenditure. They had aſcertained the exiſtence and amount of the deficit, given authenticity to the propoſed retrenchments and reforms, and recogniſed the neceſſity of impoſing ſuch additional taxes as the circumſtances might require.

The aſſembly was alſo addreſſed by the keeper of the ſeals, and the archbiſhop of Toulouſe, preſident of the council of finances. The latter of theſe entered into a copious review of the tranſactions of the notables. Upon the ſubject of provincial aſſemblies, he condemned the levelling principles that had been introduced by Mr. de Calonne. He congratulated the aſſembly upon their magnanimous ſuperiority to the idea of an intereſt in particular orders ſeparate from the intereſt of the whole. They had admitted that all exemptions in taxation were to be regarded as the miſchievous remains of feudality and villanage, and ought to be aboliſhed. On the other hand, the king and the nation were far from wiſhing to annihilate the privileges and diſtinctions of rank, and aiming at a vain equality that was incompatible with the monarchy. The three orders of the ſtate ought undoubtedly to have their repreſentatives in the provincial aſſemblies, and precedency ought conſtantly to be attributed to elevation of rank. The clergy and the nobleſſe had generouſly conſented to unite their intereſts, and of conſequence the third eſtate would be allowed as many repreſentatives as the other two taken together. The king was reſolved to give ſubſtance and efficiency to this proviſion, by directing that the voices ſhould be collected not in ſeparate diviſions, but as from the members of one general aſſembly. The greateſt benefit might alſo be expected from the other meaſures ſanctioned by the notables, the abolition of the corvée, and the freedom of the commerce of grain. The removal of the barriers and internal taxation between province and province would be found a moſt eſſential change. It had been thought that this could not be effected, conſiſtently with the preſervation, in any form, of the impoſt of the gabelle. The ſublime idea

idea of its total annihilation had been firſt ſuggeſted to the aſſembly by monſieur, brother of the king. It has been eagerly adopted by them, and had given riſe to a hope in the royal mind, which it would be the greateſt happineſs of his life to be enabled to fulfil.

A farther ineſtimable benefit, ſaid the archbiſhop, that had reſulted from the labours of the aſſembly, was the aſcertaining the amount of the deficit. Different bureaux had indeed varied in their reſults upon this head; he ſhould take the average of their different computations, which was 5,830,000*l.* Out of this ſum which it was neceſſary to ſupply, 2,080,000*l.* were only of temporary demand for the redemption of loans, which by the conditions of the contract had been made redeemable at fixed periods; and theſe would be diſcharged by the intervention of new loans in a diminiſhing ſeries. The retrenchments in the royal houſhold would produce a farther diminution of 1,660,000*l.* and the remaining ſum of 2,080,000*l.* would be to be raiſed by new taxes. Upon the choice of theſe taxes, the notables had declined to decide. The king would govern himſelf in his own determination, by every conſideration that the welfare of his people could ſuggeſt to him. If it were found neceſſary immediately to augment the public revenue, he would not however carry the taxes to the extent which might now ſeem to be neceſſary, till he had publiſhed an accurate detail of the receipt and expenditure, which, if poſſible, ſhould appear at the cloſe of the preſent year. This detail ſhould undergo a previous diſcuſſion in the new council of finances which the king intended to inſtitute. The loans, the taxes, and all the great operations of finance, ſhould be concerted under their inſpection. In this council the annual diſtribution of the public revenue among the different departments of government ſhould be made; and, by that inſtitution, the publicity of its reſults, the annual publication of the national debt and the funds appropriated to its diſcharge, and the other precautions that had been adopted, the king hoped to ſecure himſelf from the influence of miſrepreſentation and miſtake. In fine, the preſent criſis would become the epocha of a new ſplendour to the French monarchy. Many burthenſome and injurious inſtitutions were upon the eve of being aboliſhed; the nation would derive a new principle of life from the provincial aſſemblies, the public adminiſtration would be freed from its embarraſſments, and would proceed with ſyſtem and publicity to the purſuit of the national welfare.

The ſpeech of the preſident of the finances was immediately followed by ſhort harangues from monſieur, the king's brother, as the organ of the nobleſſe; from the archbiſhop of Narbonne; the reſpective firſt preſidents of the parliament, the chamber of accounts and the court of aids; the ſpeaker of the clergy of the province of Burgundy; the lieutenant civil; and the prévôt des marchands, or chief magiſtrate of Paris; all addreſſed to the king, and filled with the language of compliment and congratulation. By the prévôt des marchands in particular, it was obſerved, that Louis the Sixteenth would have been the exemplar and model upon which Henry the Fourth would have formed himſelf, if the partial deſtiny of the preſent generation of Frenchmen had not reſerved him to complete their happineſs.

Such were the tranſactions of this memorable and intereſting aſſembly of notables, the firſt aſſembly poſſeſſing even the pretence of repreſenting the French nation that they had ſeen for more than one hundred and fifty years. If, while we enquire into the merits of their proceedings, we compare them with the purpoſes for which they had been aſſembled by government, we ſhall not beſtow upon them conſiderable applauſe. They indeed countenanced, and ſeemed to give ſtability, under certain reſtrictions, to many beneficial projects. But theſe projects are ſcarcely to be regarded as other than ſubordinate, in the conſideration of government, to the required level between the revenue and the expenditure. In the mean time, by the pertinacious refuſal of the notables to give the ſanction of their authority to what was repreſented by Mr. de Calonne as an indirect mode of increaſing the revenue, and was treated by his ſucceſſors as avowed taxation, they rather increaſed than diminiſhed the difficulties of adminiſtration. Miniſters expected to overbear the ſtubbornneſs of the parliaments by the authority of the notables. Inſtead of this, the heſitation, the ſilence of the notables, an aſſembly undoubtedly of infinitely greater dignity and weight than any of the courts of law, ſeemed to authoriſe their reſiſtance, while the familiar ſpectacle of a ſort of national aſſembly, however imperfect in its conſtitution, gave to the people a ſyſtem of political feelings by no means favourable to the tranquillity of adminiſtration.

If, on the other hand, in eſtimating the merit of the notables of 1787, we recollect the benefits that have flowed in copious ſtreams from their labours to the nation at large, they will ever be remembered by us with the deepeſt veneration. The projects they adopted of provincial aſſemblies, the abolition of the corvée, a free corn trade, an unreſtrained commerce between the provinces of the kingdom, are fraught with a thouſand benefits of energy, proſperity, and virtue. But the ſpirit of citizenſhip that they diffuſed through the kingdom was of ineſtimable importance. It was in their aſſembly that the name of the ſtates-general was firſt pronounced. It was there that Frenchmen conceived the practicability of becoming free. By their abſolute refuſal to tax their fellow-citizens, they rendered the meeting of a general repreſentative aſſembly indiſpenſible. The ideas that the intellectual heroes of France, a Rouſſeau, an Helvetius, and a Raynal, had conceived, that at the moment they publiſhed them they deſpaired to ſee effectually adopted, and that ſeemed hitherto to have remained altogether barren, were fertiliſed at once. From hence we are to date a long ſeries of years, in which France and the whole human race are to enter into poſſeſſion of their liberties, when the ideas of juſtice and truth, of intellectual independence and everlaſting improvement, are no longer to remain buried in the duſt and obſcurity of the cloſet, or to be brought forth at diſtant intervals to be viewed with aſtoniſhment, indignation, and contempt, but to be univerſally received, familiar as the light of day, and general as the air we breathe.

It is however rather from the motives by which men are influenced, than from the conſequences which they often unintentionally produce, that we are to eſtimate their merits. Upon this ſyſtem our judgment of the virtues of this aſſembly will become

come moderate, neither wholly darkened with imbecility and vice, nor elevated to the dignity of heroiſm. They ſeem entitled to the praiſe or diligence and induſtry: they had a ſincere intention to confer ſome benefits upon their country; but they were too deeply anxious to perpetuate their privileges and excluſive diſtinctions, to deſerve the name of patriots. It will probably be claſſed among their imperfections by impartial poſterity, that they perſecuted with ſuch unrelenting vehemence Mr. de Calonne. Poſterity will judge between their hero, Mr. Necker, and the object of their bitter invectives. Meanwhile one half of their pertinacious oppoſition to the plans ſuggeſted to them, one half of the conſequences they produced in reducing the omnipotence of the monarchy, is to be aſcribed to their perſonal averſion to the miniſter. The conduct they purſued upon the ſubject of taxation was perhaps the very happieſt in its ultimate effects that they could have adopted; but it will ſcarcely be ſuſpected to have been founded in any regular ſyſtem. What was the object of their long conteſt with adminiſtration reſpecting the production of documents, a conteſt in which they finally proved victorious? If they had a juſt claim to theſe documents, why refuſe that deciſion upon the taxes propoſed, which ſeemed to be the inevitable conſequence of their claim? If they were from the firſt determined to refuſe all active interference with the buſineſs of revenue, by what right did they call for the documents? To theſe conſiderations it is to be added, that they evidently diſplayed before their ſeparation that ſelf-intereſted eſprit de corps, by which every combination of men ſeeks to perpetuate its own exiſtence. They demanded to be permitted to ſit till certain beneficial plans were adequately carried into execution. Could there be a greater ſoleciſm to politics or to right reaſon, than for a body of men, who expreſsly diſclaimed all deliberative and legiſlative authority, at the ſame time to endeavour to conſtitute themſelves the overſeers of government and ſafeguards of the people?

CHAP. II.

Council of Finances. Stamp Duty. Conduct of the Parliament of Paris. Demand for the States-General. Land Tax. Bed of Juſtice. Impeachment of Mr. de Calonne. Parliament baniſhed. Remonſtrances of the other Parliaments. Weakneſs of Adminiſtration.

THE ſituation in which the diſſolution of the notables left the government, was in the higheſt degree arduous. It is probable that, if that aſſembly had given an unanimous and unqualified approbation to the projects that were ſubmitted to them, all reſiſtance from any other quarter would have been overawed, and the monarchy would, for the preſent, have rather gained an acceſſion of ſtrength, than been weakened by the difficulties it had been obliged to encounter. But the

event had been far otherwiſe. The notables had at moſt only recogniſed the emergency, and had expreſsly withheld their ſanction from the meaſures that were to ſupply it.

The reſiſtance principally to be feared was on the part of the parliaments; for, whatever might have been the ſentiments of the nation at large, if they had not found a point of union, if there had not exiſted a power in the conſtitution, fitted to diſſeminate with weight and efficiency the prevailing principles, it muſt at leaſt have been by very ſlow degrees that they could be expected to produce their effect. The parliaments were originally courts of law only; and, if the ambition of the Gallic princes of four preceding centuries had not moſt violently encroached upon the liberties of their ſubjects, ſuch they muſt for ever have remained. France, like the other kingdoms of modern Europe, had originally its ſtates general, who were accuſtomed to be conſulted upon all great legiſlative queſtions, and without whoſe participation the prince could not regularly levy ſubſidies upon his people. The progreſs of liberty and civiliſation advanced by juſt degrees; and, as Simon Montfort gave birth to the houſe of commons in England in the year 1264, ſo in France the third eſtate was firſt ſummoned to the ſtates general by Philip the Fair in 1302. It was about the ſame time that the name of parliament, which had been hitherto one of the denominations of this aſſembly, began to be excluſively attached to the cours de palais, or court of king's bench.

As by the crooked policy of Charles the Wiſe and his ſucceſſors the ſtates general began gradually to fall into diſuſe, it became neceſſary to provide the kingdom with ſome apparent ſubſtitute. The mind of man irreſiſtibly revolts from the notion of uncontrolable deſpotiſm; and no tyranny, however abſolute, could ever yet render itſelf permanent, without preſenting to its ſubjects a phantom of conſtitutional reſtraint. By the deſpots of France it was conceived, that a more impotent phantom could not be invented, than that of a parliamentary regiſter of the royal edicts. The parliamen s were merely courts of law, the organs and inſtruments of the executive power, appointed and removable originally at the pleaſure of the crown. They were not the repreſentatives of the nation, they were not even an order in the ſtate, their deliberative power in the making of laws was what no political conſtitution could recogniſe, and in its own nature ſeemed inefficient and nugatory. The abſurdity of the claim was the very cauſe to which it was indebted for its eſtabliſhment, no adminiſtration being found cautious enough timely to guard againſt ſo prepoſterous an encroachment.

The nation however ſeemed to cheriſh the very ſhadow of liberty. The parliaments were a permanent corps, and from that circumſtance poſſeſſed an advantage that can never be combined with monarchical power. Equally capable at all times themſelves, they were able to improve to their own advantage the periods of weakneſs, ſuch as minorities in particular, incident to royalty. Their efficiency was alſo increaſed by incidental circumſtances. The judicial places were by the diſtreſſes or avarice of government gradually rendered venal; and, when men had originally purchaſed their ſituations, it could not be juſt to diſmiſs them at the arbitrary will of the party of whom they were purchaſed. Another conſe-

quence of this regulation was, that conſpicuous ſituations in the parliaments were frequently filled by very young men, and the courts thus obtained the advantage of uniting the activity and ardour incident to that period with the experience and caution of maturer years. The operation of theſe advantages was frequently viſible in the hiſtory of France. Their remonſtrances are of a date as diſtant as the reign of Louis the Eleventh; they gradually became more active, and of more perceptible influence; they had particularly appeared as a curb and reſtraint upon the adminiſtration of the laſt reign during a period of fifty years, till at length it was reſolved entirely to annihilate them; a reſolution that was carried into effect in January 1771. At the commencement of the preſent reign in 1774, it was thought proper to begin with the popular meaſure of their reſtoration; and at this time their privileges, the offspring of innumerable encroachments, were limited and defined.

The government of Louis the Sixteenth had proceeded with little interruption on their part, till about the middle of the adminiſtration of Mr. de Calonne. In the year 1785 that miniſter was involved in a violent controverſy with the parliament of Bourdeaux, upon a queſtion reſpecting the royal domains; and in the cloſe of that year the parliament of Paris was with extreme difficulty prevailed upon to regiſter the loan with which the accounts of the year were concluded. They remonſtrated againſt ſuch a meaſure as highly prodigal, at a time when the war had already ceaſed near three years. Mr. de Calonne, who foreſaw that the ſituation of the finances would by no means permit this to be the laſt extraordinary pecuniary operation of government, conceived himſelf obliged to have recourſe to a political expedient anſwerable to the emergency, and not to riſk the reputation of government by a renewal of the ſtruggle with the ſupreme court of judicature. The notables were aſſembled: they parted without doing what adminiſtration expected from them; and that ſituation, which Mr. de Calonne feared to encounter, was deſtined to try the ability of the archbiſhop of Toulouſe. He had hitherto ventured only upon a petty loan of 250,000*l.*; he was now to enter upon the greater and more arduous buſineſs of taxation.

The firſt ſtep adopted by adminiſtration in purſuance of the plan they had now digeſted, was the eſtabliſhment of the new council of finances; and the regulation for that purpoſe is dated on the fifth of June. This meaſure appears to have been extremely popular, as it was ſuppoſed that many profuſe and prodigal meaſures had at all times been adopted by government, in conſequence of the irreſponſible manner in which the revenues were conducted, there exiſting no practical check on the controller general, who, if he were able to prevail upon the mind of the king, might in the moſt covert manner diſpoſe of the public money. By the preſent regulation an efficient council of finances was introduced, to conſiſt of the keeper of the ſeals, the preſident of the finances, the miniſters of ſtate, the controller general, and two counſellors. This council was to meet at leaſt once in every month; was to ſuperintend the loans, the taxes, and all the principal operations of finance; was to exerciſe the annual diſtribution of funds neceſſary to the different departments,

and

and to prepare for the preſs an annual account, to be publiſhed in the month of December, of the revenues of the enſuing year. This regulation was accompanied with certain ſuppreſſions of office and retrenchments in the departments ſubordinate to the controller general. It was alſo upon this occaſion that the duke de Nivernois, who had diſtinguiſhed himſelf in ſeveral embaſſies as well as in certain productions of polite literature, and Mr. de Maleſherbes, uncle to the keeper of the ſeals, and who had been celebrated for his writings in favour of the civil eſtabliſhment of the proteſtants, were declared miniſters and counſellors of ſtate.

It was reported that miniſters had at this time conceived the project, which was in a future inſtance carried into execution, of a ſéance royale in the parliament of Paris, differing from a bed of juſtice, becauſe the members would in this caſe have freely been permitted in the preſence of the king to debate the meaſures they were called upon to regiſter, and becauſe a bed of juſtice has uſually been ſubſequent to the diſcuſſion of the laws and the remonſtrances of the courts, while the ſéance royale was intended to accompany the introduction of the edicts, and to ſuperſede delay. It was conſidered as equally belonging to the nature of both theſe proceedings, to conclude with a peremptory regiſter by the ſole authority of the king.

If this meaſure had been at all in contemplation, it was however for the preſent poſtponed. The characteriſtic of the adminiſtration of the archbiſhop of Toulouſe was irreſolution and the want of ſyſtem; and the conſequence of this feature was, that men perceived he had harſh meaſures in reſerve, and were not influenced by his expoſtulations, or were ſatisfied that he had not fortitude enough for a ſeries of ſeverities, and therefore gave no attention to his threats.

On the twelfth of June, the day ſaid to have been deſtined for the ſéance royale, four edicts were ſent to the parliament of Paris to be regiſtered, for eſtabliſhing the provincial aſſemblies, for liberating the commerce of grain, for aboliſhing the corvée in kind, and for impoſing the duty upon ſtamps. The three firſt of theſe were regiſtered, not without a conſiderable degree of diſcuſſion, upon the twenty-ſecond, the twenty-fifth, and twenty-eighth days of June reſpectively.

The ſtamp tax was deſtined to encounter a greater degree of difficulty. The parliament was entirely ſilent reſpecting it till the ſixth of the following month. They then voted an addreſs to the ſovereign, demanding the communication of ſuch documents as ſhould enable them to judge of the neceſſity of introducing new taxes, and of the extent and ſolidity that were likely to be given to the promiſed retrenchments. The king, they obſerved, had engaged himſelf with the concluſion of the year to publiſh the account of the receipt and expenditure; but, if the people were entitled to information in the ſequel, the parliament had a claim to it previouſly to regiſtering the tax, as the very name of verifying the royal edicts implied.

This addreſs was by no means favourably received by adminiſtration. The parliament enforced their demand by remarking, that that which they now required had already been granted to the aſſembly of notables; but it was conceived by their antagoniſts, that the par-

liaments and the notables ſtood upon a very different footing. The notables had neither a fixed character nor a permanent exiſtence. They were compoſed of perſons nominated by the king, and called together upon particular emergencies at his diſcretion. Extraordinary indulgences might therefore be granted to them, without ſeeming to involve the eſtabliſhment of general principles which might one day be turned to the diſadvantage of the grantor. But the parliament was a permanent body. Its invaſions on the crown had already been attended with conſiderable ſucceſs. If therefore the exiſting form of government were thought in any degree worthy of defence, it ſhould ſeem neceſſary to have reſiſted the preſent demand.

But if the exiſting form of government were to be abandoned, it might be ſtill open for conſideration what form ſhould be ſubſtituted in its place. The demand of the parliament was of no equivocal nature. They had fixed upon the moſt valuable prerogative incident to a national aſſembly, and which, if once ſecurely placed in their hands, would have amounted to a ſurrender at diſcretion of the monarchical ſupremacy. To call for documents and accounts, to inveſtigate through their aſſiſtance the allegations, and enquire into the conduct of miniſters, is the unalienable right of the repreſentatives of a free people. But the moſt fervent advocate of freedom might be permitted to doubt, whether veſting this right in ſo limited an ariſtocracy as the parliament of Paris, could poſſibly conduce to the general welfare. It was however little likely that ſuch a ceſſion ſhould be adviſed under the adminiſtration of the archbiſhop of Toulouſe, who had long profeſſed to be, upon the moſt liberal principles, the adverſary of the ambitious prerogatives of the juridical corps.

In the mean time the parliament perſiſted in its requiſition. They preſented on the fifteenth of July a ſecond addreſs, in which they ſtated that they were bound in a double capacity, being to their fellow-ſubjects the organ of majeſty, and to majeſty the ſurety of his ſubjects' loyalty and obedience. Thus called upon, they felt themſelves obliged to repeat their former requeſts; and they intreated the king, by the fidelity they had ſworn to him, to grant him their confidence. They would never abuſe it; it was neceſſary for the good of his ſervice, and would ſecure the welfare of his people; in the ſovereigns of France the language of confidence had ever been the moſt ſucceſsful attraction to love and obedience. This addreſs experienced the ſame fate as that which had preceded it.

It was however at this conjuncture that the parliament of Paris adopted a new line of conduct, which fixed upon them at once the attention of their country and of Europe. The idea of aſſembling the ſtates-general of the kingdom had been obſcurely hinted at in the reſolutions of the notables, and had formed a frequent topic of their diſcuſſions. This idea, new, intereſting, and ſublime, was calculated to attract the attention of certain young and enterpriſing minds in the juridical corps. Without nicely calculating the nature of ſuch a meaſure, or the effects it might be expected to produce, they ſubſtituted fervour and enthuſiaſm in the place of inveſtigation. The true foundation of political freedom had already been laid. It had been inſinuated by the moſt reſpectable authority, that

that the nation alone, assembled in its representatives, had the right of taxation. Such an opinion, so authenticated, was not likely in the present enlightened state of the human mind to remain in barrenness and inactivity. From the notables the flame had diffused itself with different degrees of vehemence in the public and the parliaments. Previously to the period at which we are arrived, it had been repeatedly moved to supplicate the sovereign to assemble the states-general of the kingdom; and the proposition, after long debates, had in each instance been rejected by still decreasing majorities. The day, upon which this important vote was ultimately adopted, was the sixteenth of July.

It has sufficiently appeared by the event, that, when the parliament of Paris declared themselves in favour of a national assembly, they gave the death's wound to the ambitious and usurping prerogatives which had long formed the exclusive object of their pursuit. If they had been able to reason with the elevation of genuine philosophers, and to see the event in the causes that produced it, it is scarcely to be supposed that they would have been thus eager to co-operate for their own destruction. But they judged of the future by the past. They saw that the states-general of France had frequently been assembled without adopting any one important measure; and they hoped, that the event in the present instance would be similar, or that at least their plans would rather tend to introduce some trifling restrictions upon the existing government, than to erect an entire system of liberty upon its ruins. They simply voted, that "a national assembly would be necessary previously to the imposition of a new tax;" and they no doubt imagined, that the states-general, who would owe their existence to the parliamentary remonstrances, would gratefully confine their discussions within the limits that the parliaments prescribed to them. At any rate new taxes could not frequently be necessary; the states-general that met to-day would at the close of their meeting be adjourned sine die; and in the interval of their precarious sessions business would speedily return into its old channel.

It cannot be very hazardous to affirm, that those members who were actuated by an exclusive and monopolising spirit, and these constituted a vast majority, felt no very anxious impatience to obtain what they very importunately demanded. But this is no uncommon exhibition of human character. Government treated them in the present instance with a greater degree of phlegm and moderation than they expected or desired. If the taxes had been given up to their remonstrances, they would have acquired no contemptible share of popularity. If on the other hand the king should have recourse to a bed of justice, to a register by compulsion, to arbitrary imprisonment and exile, they would appear to be suffering in the public cause, and would acquire the reputation of martyrs. But thus to leave them to themselves was the most cruel of all dilemmas. They could not stand still; they would hardly be willing to retract. Every moment in which no new incident occurred, tended to weaken their interest in the public opinion. Nor was this all; the parliamentary struggles had never obtained more than a partial popularity; and, now that the minds of

men ſeemed to be awakening to the great fundamental queſtions of government, were likely to be leſs intereſting than before. To act their part with grace and effect, it was neceſſary they ſhould adopt the paſſions and predilections of their countrymen. They would, by this means, acquire the reputation of the utmoſt diſintereſtedneſs, without, as they appear to have conceived, riſking the loſs of any thing to which they were conſiderably attached.

The remonſtrance of the parliament deſcanted with great ſeverity upon the late adminiſtration; and, as the idea of remonſtrating had originated with the youngeſt and moſt adventurous members of the aſſembly, the compoſition was every where fraught with falſe facts, and daring and groundleſs aſſertions. They began in the higheſt ſtyle of exaggeration. They remarked, that after five years of peace, after an augmentation of revenue during the preſent reign to the amount of 5,400,000 *l.* it was ſcarcely to have been expected, that the name of tax ſhould have been pronounced by a beneficent ſovereign, but for the purpoſe of alleviating the burthens of the people. They alluded to the preamble of the loan of 1785, in which Mr. de Calonne had aſſerted, that the diſcharge of the arrears of the war was now nearly completed, and the reſources of France approaching to a moſt proſperous ſtate. They ſpoke of the zeal which they had then fruitleſsly exerted to diſcloſe the embarraſſed and ruinous ſtate of the finances; and they repreſented all the misfortunes of France, as accruing from the king's choice of a miniſter, who ſeemed to be diſapproved by the voice of the public, that voice which can ſcarcely err, becauſe a multitude of men can hardly receive an impreſſion contrary to the truth.

The remonſtrance farther expreſſed great anxiety reſpecting the promiſed retrenchments. Such projects were too apt to prove fallacious. Men applauded them loudly in the groſs, and oppoſed them in the detail. Perhaps the deſign was already in part undermined; perhaps the men upon whom the reform preſſed the moſt ſeverely, had already excited doubts reſpecting its extent or its duration. Sure they were, that, if the king had ſooner underſtood the real ſituation of the finances, he would not have permitted the prodigality of a recent period, immenſe buildings, extenſive purchaſes, ſcandalous liberalities, and, above all, the palace which had lately been erected for the clerks of the revenue. They had no doubt, that, if an impartial ſcrutiny were exerted, the reforms, inſtead of amounting to 1,660,000 *l.* might eaſily be raiſed to double that ſum per annum.

They proceeded to ſpeak of the ſtamp tax, which had been approved by the aſſembly of notables, in the ſevereſt terms. It was more dangerous than the exploded gabelle. The gabelle only opened a door to fraud and deception; the ſtamp tax oppreſſed the nation through the medium of erroneous judgment. The minuteſt accuracy could ſcarcely be ſufficient to diſtinguiſh among the vaſt variety of ſtamps; men would daily, nay hourly, be expoſed to puniſhment for an unintentional error; and the baſis of civil policy would be undermined by their not daring to produce in a court of juſtice the moſt authentic vouchers, becauſe they were not written upon ſtamped paper. The tax was a

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bad one, becauſe its nature rendered it ſuſceptible of a gradual and unperceived augmentation at the arbitrary pleaſure of government; and it was worſe, becauſe, providing as it profeſſed to do for a temporary neceſſity, it was unlimited in its duration.

They now came to the point which formed the diſtinguiſhing ſubject of the remonſtrance. They alluded to the taxes that were introduced at the cloſe of the reign of Louis the Fourteenth. They were intended to continue only for a ſhort period, and the calamities of the ſtate appeared not to admit of delay. Otherwiſe the parliament of the day would have ſaid to that great monarch, "The nation alone aſſembled in the ſtates-general can give to a permanent tax the requiſite ſanction; your parliament cannot ſupply this conſent, and can ſtill leſs atteſt its exiſtence, when that exiſtence is altogether doubtful; they have been intruſted by the king to announce his will to the people, but have never been commiſſioned by the people to aſſume the functions of their repreſentatives." Such was the language which the parliament now took the liberty to ſuggeſt to his majeſty; and they urged him to compliance by the example of four of the moſt conſiderable princes of his illuſtrious race, among whom it is ſufficiently ſingular that they enumerated Charles the Fifth and Henry the Fourth, neither of whom ever called together the aſſembly of the ſtates-general. They concluded with a requeſt, that in the mean while he would withdraw the edict of ſtamp tax, whoſe name alone had given alarm to the kingdom, and whoſe execution would diffuſe an univerſal conſternation.

The remonſtrance bore upon the face of it the moſt glaring inconſiſtency. It owed its exiſtence to the refuſal of the king to communicate to them ſuch documents as might enable them to judge of the extent of the emergency. But, if the ſtamp tax were really ſo vicious as they now repreſented it, it furniſhed no juſt occaſion for the production of theſe documents. No emergency could juſtify its impoſition, and it ought to have been rejected upon its own merits, not upon the examination of a queſtion altogether foreign. Beſide, the parliament declared they had no right to regiſter a tax; whence then could they deduce the right of being informed reſpecting the ſtate of revenue which was ſuppoſed to render any tax neceſſary? In fact the moment they aſſerted the principles of liberty, in that moment they departed from all the maxims which had governed their political conduct through preceding centuries. If they had candidly and explicitly avowed their error, they would have been entitled to applauſe. But they fell into all thoſe abſurdities which conſtantly attend upon the want of ſincerity. They did not deſire the ſtates-general, they only deſired to take advantage of a momentary opinion to acquire unmerited popularity. Accordingly their aſſertions throughout were raſh and adventurous, not delivered with the caution of ſelf-eſteem, or inſpired by a genuine feeling of the cauſe in which they embarked.

The remonſtrance of the parliament was preſented on the twenty-ſeventh of July, and the anſwer of the king conveyed to them on the twenty-ninth. In this anſwer he reſerved to a future day the acquainting them with his intentions

reſpecting the ſtamp tax. As he wiſhed however to remove all doubt reſpecting the extent of the ſupplies which the public ſituation demanded, he thought proper immediately to lay before them the edict for commuting the exiſting vingtièmes into an equaliſation of land-tax, ſuch as had been diſcuſſed in the aſſembly of notables. It was his intention accurately to proportion the taxes impoſed to the real neceſſities of the ſtate, and of conſequence to reſtrain their duration within the limits of thoſe neceſſities. The report he was determined annually to publiſh of the ſtate of the revenue would leave no doubts upon the ſubject; and he expected from the zeal and loyalty of his parliament, that they would immediately proceed to regiſter the land-tax.

The parliament, being now ſufficiently advertiſed by the conduct of government, that it was intended to proceed to extremities, determined, inſtead of retracting, to aſſume only the more firmneſs and intrepidity, as the danger increaſed. They ſummoned for the following day, as is uſual upon extraordinary occaſions, the peers of France to aſſiſt in their deliberations. Such was the contagion of the preſent political enthuſiaſm, and ſo far had the long-forgotten name of a national aſſembly rouſed the energies of the public mind, that theſe diſtinguiſhed characters, who might have been expected to be the ſupporters of the throne, and who might juſtly fear, in caſe of a revolution, to be ſtripped of many of their oppreſſive and arbitrary privileges, unmindful of theſe conſiderations, eagerly joined the parliamentary oppoſition. It was in ſome meaſure the love of privilege itſelf, that unconſciouſly led them to the deſtruction of privilege. They were fired with reſentment againſt the ſupporters of a project, that ſubjected them in common with their fellow-citizens to contribute to the neceſſities of the ſtate; and, rather than not gratify that reſentment, were contented to involve themſelves in the ruin. Accordingly it was voted in full aſſembly, that the parliament perſiſted in their former reſolution, and would renew their ſupplications to the ſovereign to aſſemble the ſtates-general of the kingdom.

But, before this addreſs could be preſented, a royal meſſage announced to the parliament his intention of holding a bed of juſtice on Monday the ſixth of Auguſt. The meſſage was delivered at five o'clock on Sunday afternoon, and the parliament, immediately aſſembling, came to a reſolution of inſtructing their firſt preſident to ſignify to the king in the approaching ſolemnity, that, not having obtained from the ſovereign the information and documents they requeſted, they were not legally empowered to take into conſideration the edicts he had communicated; that they felt the moſt lively ſorrow for having been employed for twelve years paſt in giving their ſanction to accumulated impoſts; that the preſent requiſition exceeded their powers; and that it would be in vain for them to aſſent to taxes, which it evidently exceeded the ability of the ſubject to pay. The firſt preſident was farther directed to ſtate their ſpecific objections to the ſtamp tax and the land tax, reſpecting the latter of which they obſerved, that it was calculated to create diſſenſion and jealouſy between province and province, between diſtrict and diſtrict; that vaſſals and lords, fathers and ſons, maſters and ſervants, would be encouraged to

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accuſe each other of paying an inadequate proportion, either for the ſake of removing the burthen from their own ſhoulders, or of gratifying private revenge. They concluded with declaring, that if the king, in ſpite of their repreſentations, were determined to proceed, his parliament would not ceaſe to employ all its zeal, and to expreſs its diſſent with as much firmneſs as reſpect, againſt taxes, whoſe eſſence would be deſtructive, and whoſe collection illegal.

The regiſtering of the edicts in the bed of juſtice took place on the following day, Mr. d'Aligre, the firſt preſident, having read the reſolution of the court, and Mr. Seguier, advocate-general, ſeparately ſtated the moſt obvious arguments againſt the two edicts. The edict of ſtamp tax expreſsly limited the duration of the impoſt to the firſt of January 1798. Meanwhile the parliament and peers, having aſſembled on the following day, declared null and illegal the tranſcripts that had been made into the records of the court.

The flame, which thus began within the walls of the court of judicature, preſently ſpread over the city of Paris. The taxes excited a general alarm. While the land-tax was conſidered in an unfavourable view by the nobility and perſons of rank, the ſtamp duty excited terror in the mercantile claſs of citizens, and thus all deſcriptions of men appeared to unite in ſupporting the ſpirited and intrepid oppoſition of the parliament. On the part of government great numbers of the military were aſſembled at Paris, to overawe the mutinous ſpirit of the people, and the members of the courts of juſtice were obliged to paſs to their ſittings through armed ranks of ſoldiers with bayonets fixed. On the other hand an unheard of ſpirit of diſcuſſion ſeemed to diffuſe itſelf among the citizens, and animated ſentiments of liberty, the moſt foreign to what had hitherto characteriſed the kingdom, were the topic and the echo of every converſation. The uſual ſymptoms of irregular and tumultuous emotion accompanied this ſtate of the public mind. The people aſſembled every where in crowds, and expreſſed by the moſt unequivocal tokens their applauſe and diſpleaſure. The count d'Artois, younger brother of the king, in particular, had by ſome inſtances of ariſtocratical vivacity incurred the reſentment of the people, and was generally received with hiſſes and groans, while monſieur, the next brother, became an object of favour, and was loaded with marks of approbation.

The proceedings of adminiſtration during this period conſiſted of a mixture of firmneſs and compliance. The parliament had ſuggeſted in the reſolution by which they authoriſed the regiſter of the provincial aſſemblies, that it would be expedient, for the particular regulations, which were referred by the edict to a future publication, to be brought forward as early as poſſible; and they were accordingly promulgated on Monday the fifth of Auguſt. The royal declaration of retrenchments alſo appeared on the ninth. If theſe meaſures were adopted from a deſire of ſoothing and mollifying the fierceneſs of parliamentary oppoſition, nothing could certainly have been more injudicious. If on the contrary they were intended merely to put the public in poſſeſſion of the whole plan of government, they conſtituted a very proper and becoming part of that ſyſtem of firmneſs which was deemed to be indiſ-

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penſible. The interpretation, however, that is given by the public to any particular meaſure, always depends upon the idea they have formed of the capacity and virtue of him that patroniſes the meaſure; and the character of the archbiſhop of Touloufe had ceaſed to be a topic of ſcepticiſm and diſputation. The conſtruction therefore that was put upon the preſent proceeding was highly unfavourable.

Meanwhile the parliament did not imitate the moderation and timidity of adminiſtration. Not daring to carry their direct oppoſition to government to any greater extreme, they were not however idle. They adopted a meaſure, that at once ſerved to gratify the reſtleſs activity of their preſent diſpoſition, and appeared in ſome degree analogous to their functions as a ſupreme court of judicature. They paſſed a ſort of vote of impeachment againſt Mr. de Calonne, ſatisfied that, if they could eſtabliſh as a principle the reſponſibility of miniſters at their tribunal, they ſhould render themſelves little leſs formidable, than if they could have ſecured the right of taxation itſelf. In all former examples they had inveſtigated the conduct and imputed guilt of miniſters at the inſtance and acting as the inſtruments of the crown; it was now to be tried whether they could bring a queſtion of this ſort before them ſpontaneouſly, and by a ſimple proceeeding of their own body. The vote authoriſed the attorney-general to receive informations againſt the ex-miniſter reſpecting depredations in the finances, either by purchaſes and exchange, by manœuvres in the coinage, by the clandeſtine application of the revenue to the purpoſes of dealing in the public ſtocks, by the extenſion of loans, or in fine by abuſes of authority and other miſdemeanours of whatever kind, committed in the adminiſtration of the finances, their circumſtances and dependencies. We have had occaſion in the courſe of this hiſtory to mention the principal circumſtances alluded to in each of theſe charges, and it is hoped have ſtated them with ſufficient explicitneſs to enable the reader to form a general eſtimate of their merits.

Mr. de Calonne affords a remarkable example of an illuſtrious character unjuſtly ſuffering by the arts of cabal and the indiſcriminate ſeverity of popular opinion. We have ſeen him in the firſt inſtance diſmiſſed from adminiſtration with every mark of conſideration and eſteem, and requeſted to aſſiſt with his information his ſucceſſor in office. But this moderation did not long continue. His rivals in the political courſe found their way to the royal ear, and conceived that they could do nothing that would prove more conducive to their intereſt, than the endeavouring to make it be believed that all the embarraſſments of France originated in his prodigality. The firſt effect of this inſidious proceeding was the cauſing him to be baniſhed to his eſtate of Hanonville in Lorraine. Mr. de Calonne was acutely alive to a ſenſe of reputation, and his firſt care in this retreat was to draw up a narrative of his tranſactions reſpecting the money ſupplied to ſupport the credit of the public funds, which he ſent to Paris, to be tranſmitted to the archbiſhop of Touloufe. The prelate however declined receiving this narrative, declaring that he ſaw the whole tranſaction in as favourable a light as the moſt ardent friends of Mr. de Calonne could deſire, and that to his mind it needed no juſtification. Mean-

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while the baniſhed ſtateſman perceived the clamour of popular hatred againſt him every day increaſing, and thought proper on the twelfth of June to addreſs a letter to the archbiſhop, incloſing his reſignation of the dignity of great treaſurer of the French orders of knighthood. In his anſwer to this letter the prelate threw off the maſk. He obſerved, that Mr. de Calonne could not be ignorant that conſiderable ſums had been iſſued from the treaſury without authority from the king; he could not be ignorant of the deſtination of thoſe ſums; and he ought not to be aſtoniſhed that the king was diſſatisfied with it. It was impoſſible for the archbiſhop to diſguiſe from the ſovereign what the intereſt of his affairs made it requiſite he ſhould know; and, as the prelate entertained no doubts upon the ſubject, he had not thought it neceſſary to demand from Mr. de Calonne any elucidation.—It was not long after this that Mr. de Calonne received an order to reſign his blue ribband, the inſignia of his dignity as a knight of the Holy Ghoſt; and, influenced probably by the neceſſity he felt of appealing to the public in his own juſtification, he communicated to the king his intention of retiring into Holland. The Dutch were at that time in a very critical ſituation; and, ſoon after his arrival in their territories, the French government cauſed it to be ſignified to him, that it would be agreeable to the king if he choſe another reſidence. He immediately ſet out for England, and arrived in London about the beginning of Auguſt.

Incidents, which the world has agreed to diſtinguiſh by the name of calamity, are not always of ſuch a nature as would induce a wiſe man to wiſh to avoid them. Mr. de Calonne, with no common portion of capacity and virtue, was diſgraced and baniſhed, the mark of miniſterial perſecution and public abhorrence; and yet his fortune ſeems rather entitled to our envy then our compaſſion. By his wiſdom he conferred benefits upon France, which will laſt as long as the country ſhall have a name. The principle of equal taxation, though he was unable to carry it into immediate execution, was too clearly explained and too fully diſſeminated to be in danger of ever being loſt; and equal taxation, beſide its intrinſic excellence, is fraught with a thouſand bleſſings of liberty and virtue. If however Mr. de Calonne had been able to carry his principle into immediate execution, it would not have fermented ſo completely, or produced ſo extenſive benefits. His country therefore gained by the diſgrace of her moſt illuſtrious ſtateſman. Even the perſecution, the unjuſt and virulent perſecution that was excited againſt him, was eminently beneficial. Men in their preſent imperfect ſtate ſeem to require the ſtimulus of reſentment and the feelings of injury, to prompt great numbers of them efficiently to co-operate in the production of any thing great and extraordinary. When this temporary error has produced its effect, it is not to be doubted that it will ſpeedily vaniſh, and the merits of Mr. de Calonne's adminiſtration appear in their genuine luſtre. Thus fortunately circumſtanced, there was only one thing wanting to complete his character. It was, that he ſhould have loved the liberty of which he was the author.

The edicts of land-tax and ſtamp duty appeared from the preſs on the eleventh of Auguſt; and, the publication

lication being taken into the conſideration of the parliament and peers on the thirteenth, they came to a reſolution ſtill more ſtrongly expreſſive of their determined oppoſition to theſe meaſures. They declared that the publication (though the edict were expreſsly mentioned to be regiſtered in a bed of juſtice, and though the printed minutes contained the parliamentary reſolution of the fifth inſtant) was calculated to deceive; that the compulſory preſence of the parliament in a ſcene to which they had brought nothing but their ſilent affliction and regrets, and the empty form of directing the keeper of the ſeals to collect the opinion of an aſſembly where no man gave his voice, could not give authenticity to the regiſter, or confer upon the king a legal right of taxation. They therefore declared, what they ſtyled the clandeſtine diſtribution of theſe edicts, null and illegal, and of conſequence incapable to deprive the nation of its rights, and authoriſe a ſubſidy which would be contrary to all the principles maxims and practices of the kingdom. Beſide theſe declarations, the reſolution reiterated in its body the objections to the new impoſts, which objections were remarked by the adverſaries of the parliament to partake of an ariſtocratical ſpirit, as they dwelled with great emphaſis on the ſuppoſed injuſtice of obliging a gentleman to pay a tax upon his country houſe and adjoining fields, while they over looked ſimilar or nearly ſimilar remarks that would have applied to the citizen and the farmer. The perſons who principally diſtinguiſhed themſelves in theſe debates, appear to have been the abbé Sabatier de la Cabre, who firſt moved the queſtion upon the ſtates-general, and Mr. d'Eſpremeſnil, who particularly engroſſed the idolatry of the common people and the enthuſiaſtic friends of the parliamentary cauſe.

On the fourteenth the king annulled the reſolution which had been voted by the parliament againſt Mr. de Calonne, evoking the queſtion to be heard before himſelf in council; and on the following day letters patent and lettres de cachet were executed againſt the parliament of Paris and its members, tranſlating their ſittings to Troyes in Champagne, about one hundred miles from Paris. The letters patent were regiſtered in parliament on the twenty-ſecond, upon which occaſion they recapitulated a part of the principles upon which they profeſſed to have acted, and reſolved to ſend circular letters to the princes and peers to notify their intention of reſuming their deliberations. On the twenty-ſeventh they accordingly proceeded to a ſtill farther reſolution, in which, after again ſtating the neceſſity of having recourſe to the ſtates-general, they remarked, that the French monarchy would be reduced to a ſtate of deſpotiſm, if it were true that miniſters, abuſing the authority of the king, might diſpoſe of men's perſons by lettres de cachet, of their property by beds of juſtice, of cauſes civil and criminal by annullings and evocations, and ſuſpend the courſe of juſtice by particular exiles or arbitrary tranſlation. They added, that they perſiſted in the principles they had maintained, and would not ceaſe to watch, at the expence individually of their lives and fortunes, over all ſuch concerns as might intereſt the ſervice of the king and the tranquillity of his ſubjects.

It preſently appeared that the parliament had not been miſtaken in the policy they adopted. All France ſeemed to intereſt itſelf in their diſgrace. It was not in vain

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that they had departed from the ſyſtem of their apparent intereſt, and claimed the convocation of the ſtates-general. The deſire which they expreſſed appears to have been the wiſh of a great majority of the nation; and their countrymen in general were deeply impreſſed with gratitude for their exertions and admiration of their heroiſm. But, beſide theſe general conſiderations, there were ſpecific circumſtances, which rendered them ſecure of a reſpectable ſupport. The parliament of Paris conſtitutes as it were a common head to various courts of great antiquity reſident in the capital, as well as to the different parliaments and courts of law diſtributed in the ſeveral provinces of the kingdom. It was reaſonable to expect that theſe corps would not deſert their principal in the great cauſe in which it was embarked, or ſuffer the preſent opportunity to eſcape them of acquiring additional weight and importance to all the law officers of the kingdom. The abſence of the parliament from the capital was a real grievance, and a ſerious impediment to the adminiſtration of juſtice. If this ſhould even be deemed a ſlight inconvenience to perſons having recourſe to legal redreſs, it was not however felt to be ſuch by the members of the profeſſion, whoſe fees and emoluments were by this circumſtance entirely ſuſpended.

The firſt ſymptoms of this ſpirit appeared in the chamber of accounts and the court of aids, when monſieur and the count d'Artois went reſpectively, on the ſeventeenth of Auguſt, to enter in a ſummary way the two celebrated edicts in the regiſters of theſe bodies. Upon this occaſion the firſt preſidents of each of the courts declared the diſſent of their colleagues from the meaſures purſued, and complained of the irregularity of the procedure in regiſtering laws, which, at the ſame time that they had not been communicated to them for any previous examination, were already before the public through the medium of the preſs. The chamber of accounts came to a reſolution that very afternoon, in which, in imitation of the parliament, they declared the regiſtry null and illegal, and expreſſed their determination to ſolicit the recall of that body by the ſovereign. The court of aids adopted on the following day, by an unanimous vote, a ſimilar reſolution. The Châtelet, the mint, and the board for adminiſtering the royal foreſts, alſo ſolicited the recal of the parliament.

No longer period of time elapſed than the reſpective diſtances of place made neceſſary, before a majority of the rural parliaments appeared to adopt the ſentiments of the metropolitan, and that in ſome caſes in language more vehement and unqualified than had been employed in the former inſtance. The parliaments of Rennes and Rouen reſolved to addreſs the king to recal the parliament of Paris, and expreſſed a general approbation of the conduct of that body. The former of them was not contented with this, but proceeded to cenſure a performance which had been publiſhed in favour of the ſentiments of adminiſtration, and ordered it to be burned by the common hangman.

The parliament of Grenoble in Dauphiné was particularly diſtinguiſhed for the energy of its ſtyle, and the intrepidity of its aſſertions. They ſtated, that the contributions of the people of France already exceeded two thirds of the whole income of her ſoil, that no remedy could

could be found to the preſent derangement of her finances but economy, and that this remedy impartially applied would be amply ſufficient. They aſſerted, that the rights of property were equally ſacred and ſecured by the ſame laws as the right of the king to the throne; and that, till within a period of one hundred and fifty years, the principle of the French conſtitution had conſtantly been, that, "no ſubſidy could be impoſed or levied upon the people, even in caſes of neceſſity or utility, but by the grant of the ſtates-general." They quoted the Compte Rendu of Mr. Necker to prove that in 1781 the ordinary expenditure fell ſhort of the revenue; and concluded, that ſince that time a malevolent genius had loaded the people with an additional burthen of 10,000,000*l.* ſterling; that a vicious adminiſtration had inflicted upon the ſtate a deeper wound than the longeſt and moſt unfortunate war would have produced; and that the incredible fruit of a momentary diſſipation exceeded all that Louis the Fourteenth had impoſed in a magnificent, a warlike, and, in one part, a calamitous reign of ſeventy-two years. It would be difficult, in collecting all the dilapidations of fourteen centuries from the erection of the monarchy, to compoſe a ſum ſo enormous as that which had thus diſappeared in a period of leſs than four years. From all theſe conſiderations they determined to requeſt the king to recal his parliament of Paris, that they might continue their judicial functions, and particularly the proſecution they had commenced againſt Mr. de Calonne, and immediately to aſſemble the ſtates-general, ſubjoining the impoſſibility under which the courts laboured, of proceeding to regiſter any new taxes till they had firſt obtained the conſent of the nation.

The parliament of Toulouſe and the parliament of Beſançon expreſſed the ſame ſentiments, each of them occaſionally riſing upon the model that had been afforded them by the parliament of Grenoble. The latter, in condemning the emiſſion of lettres de cachet, which they declared contrary to the ordinances of the kingdom, obſerved, that the Pariſian magiſtrates ought to have yielded no ſort of obedience to them. The parliament of Toulouſe eſtimated the exiſting taxes at three fourths of the landed income of the kingdom; and ſpoke of Mr. de Calonne as a man deſtitute of honour and ſhame, an impoſtor and a robber, whoſe puniſhment ought to be made an example to all future defaulters. The ſentiments they expreſſed on the ſubject of liberty are entitled to applauſe. They declared, that the kings of France had never pretended to adorn their ſceptre with the extorted privileges of the nation; that at all events force and violence could never be made the foundation of right; that, property being the eſſential poſſeſſion of a free people, arbitrary taxation was to be regarded as the ſymbol of vaſſalage; that to aſſume it, would be to exchange the glorious title of king of the Franks for that of a king of ſlaves; that it could not enter into the heart of the ſovereign, after having broken the chains of a foreign people, to forge them for his own; that it could not even be his intereſt to reign over a people, whoſe condition would be ſo much the more unfortunate, as they would have a maſter uncharged with the care of their ſubſiſtence, and would

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be at once expoſed to the inconveniences of liberty and the miſeries of ſervitude.

While the parliament of Paris was engaged in oppoſing certain unpopular taxes, and many other courts of juſtice diſperſed through the kingdom deemed it incumbent upon them to vindicate the principles which had occaſioned its exile, the parliament of Bourdeaux, from a very different cauſe, was involved in a ſimilar fate. It was natural for thoſe aſſemblies to regard with a jealous eye the inſtitution of other adminiſtrations in their neighbourhood, and to fear leſt theſe new eſtabliſhments might detract from their prerogatives, or participate in their credit. In other places however a reſpect for the general welfare, or a politic conformity to general opinion, ſilenced the reclamations of private intereſt, and the edict for the introduction of provincial aſſemblies was regiſtered with little or no difficulty. The parliament of Bourdeaux ſeems in this inſtance to have fallen ſhort of the prudence and ſagacity of the other courts, and to have half withdrawn the maſk, with which they might be expected to have concealed their motives from common obſervers. They declined to regiſter the edict for the preſent, alledging that they could form no ſufficient judgment of its character, till the regulations, promiſed in the body of the law, and which would conſiderably influence the nature of the inſtitution, were made public.

In this ſituation the tranſaction remained till the eighth day of Auguſt. In the mean time the provincial aſſembly was on the point of aſſembling at Limoges, and the farther proviſions for regulating the form of theſe adminiſtrations were paſſed in the council of ſtate on the fifth. They are underſtood however not yet to have reached Bourdeaux, when the parliament on the day we have mentioned came to a reſolution, prohibiting all perſons, of whatever order, to form themſelves into a provincial aſſembly within its juriſdiction, till the edict creating thoſe aſſemblies had been duly regiſtered. This was deemed too flagrant an inſtance of contempt for the civil adminiſtration to paſs without cenſure. Their reſolution was annulled by an act of the king in council on the twelfth, and letters patent and lettres de cachet were ſoon after expedited, transferring their ſittings from Bourdeaux to Libourne. In the act of council it was alledged, that it was ſufficient in any caſe for the royal pleaſure to be known, to prevent any aſſemblies meeting in purſuance of that pleaſure from being deemed illegal. On the part of the parliament it was argued, in their reſolution of the eighteenth of Auguſt, immediately after the arrival of the letters patent, and previous to their removal to Libourne, that it was altogether unprecedented for an edict to be carried into execution while the queſtion of its regiſtry was actually depending, and that they were bound to reſiſt ſo irregular a proceeding. They declared the letters of exile iſſued againſt them ſurreptitious, the conſent of the ſovereign to them having been fraudulently obtained; and they acknowledged that they ought not to have yielded obedience to them. They declared themſelves in the higheſt degree friendly to the inſtitution of provincial aſſemblies in general, and demanded from the ſovereign the convocation of the ſtates general of the kingdom. They aſſerted their exile to have been intended merely as a political

litical ſtratagem, to prevent them from diſcuſſing the odious taxes that were attempted to be impoſed upon the people. They declared beforehand the forcible regiſter, which they underſtood was to be made of the letters patent by the count de Brienne, commandant of the province, to be null and illegal; and they reiterated this declaration after the regiſter, which took place on the fifth of September. It was upon this occaſion that government thought proper to quiet a part of the alarms of the parliament, by declaring, that it was never intended to take advantage of the inſtitution of provincial aſſemblies, as a means to deprive the courts of juſtice of their privilege in the regiſter of taxes.

The mutual hoſtilities of adminiſtration on the one part, and of the people of France under the auſpices of the parliaments on the other, had reached their criſis previouſly to the æra of theſe tranſactions. It is difficult to ſay what had been preciſely the expectations of the archbiſhop of Toulouſe: but, whatever was their complexion, they were completely diſappointed. The parliament of Paris was not moved by his threats and his ſeverities. The other parliaments caught the infection; the flame of oppoſition and diſaffection increaſed every moment; and the prelate was too ſagacious or too timid ſo much as to think of levying his taxes in the face of the unanimous diſapprobation that diſcovered itſelf againſt them. The ſame warineſs however prevented him from adopting a ſpirited, a deciſive, and a graceful mode of proceeding in the contrary direction. He heſitated; he wavered. Alternately he betrayed an inclination to recede, and an inclination to perſiſt. This irreſolution ſerved only to place in a more ſtriking light the imbecility of government, and to encourage every projector to wreſt the helm of affairs by violence from the feeble and nerveleſs hand by which it was conducted.

The firſt diſcovery that was made of the diſpoſition of government to relax in its pretenſions is to be found in the royal anſwer to the addreſs of the court of aids, of the twenty-fifth of Auguſt. Upon this occaſion the king declared his refuſal to convoke the ſtates-general, and juſtified his ſeverity to the parliament of Paris. He obſerved, that, if the taxes propoſed were attended with inconveniences, that body had none but themſelves to reproach, they having refuſed to enter into a regular and ſyſtematical examination of the edicts. He was however ready to liſten to the obſervations of the corps that at preſent addreſſed him; and he encouraged them to hope every thing from his juſtice and his love for the people. In his anſwer to their renewed ſupplication of the ſecond of September, the king went ſtill farther. He mildly reproached them for not having preſented him with a more extenſive ſeries of obſervations upon the edicts; but at the ſame time promiſed to ſuffer them to remain in their preſent ſtate of non-execution, till the renewal of their ſittings in the month of November.

The inconſiſtence and inſtability, that characteriſed the preſent adminiſtration, appeared in all their proceedings. The chamber of accounts adopted nearly at the ſame time a meaſure ſimilar to that of the court of aids, and their reſolution was not merely not received with the forbearance and kindneſs which had appeared in the former inſtance, but

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was ſeverely cenſured and annulled by an order of the king in council on the twenty-third of Auguſt. This was done to ſhow, that, while government was compelled to yield to the neceſſities of the times, it was not however inſenſible to the unceremonioufneſs of the treatment and novelty of the maxims offered on the part of the courts; or rather it ſhowed in the moſt ſtriking light the impotence of the monarchy, deſirous but not daring to reſiſt, fraught with internal reſentment and defiance, but obliged to exhibit an exterior of ſubmiſſion.

The chamber of accounts, in vindication of their reſolution from the cenſure paſſed upon it in the council of ſtate, appealed to the votes of the parliament of Paris, which exhibited ſimilar principles, but which had failed to draw down the expreſs indignation of the executive government. Adminiſtration was rouſed by this inſinuation, and to vindicate their conſiſtency an order of council was made on the ſecond of September, the day upon which the king delivered his conciliatory anſwer to the courts of aids, annulling the moſt conſiderable hoſtile reſolutions of the parliament of Paris of the preceding month. In this order the edict of November 1774, by which the king ſoon after his acceſſion had reſtored the parliaments to their functions, was particularly cited. That regulation provided, that, when the king ſhould think proper, after having replied to the remonſtrances of the parliaments, to cauſe any ordinances, edicts or letters patent to be publiſhed and regiſtered, in his preſence in the parliament of Paris, or in the preſence of perſons commiſſioned by him for the other parliaments, nothing ſhould be permitted to ſuſpend their execution; the right of farther repreſentations being reſerved to the courts, with an expreſs ſaving that the force of the edicts could in no reſpect be infringed.

In the preſent ſtate of affairs a great part of the nation ſeemed to proceed with a total indifference, bordering upon contempt, for the continual fluctuations of miniſterial policy. Addreſſes poured in from the inferior juriſdictions in the dioceſe of Paris to the parliament; as the martyrs of the public cauſe; nor was their ſeries for a moment ſuſpended by the partial conceſſions of the executive government. In the mean time the language adopted by oppoſition upon this occaſion, the imperfect accents of their riſing liberty, did not fail to be ſtrongly tinctured with the remains of deſpotic adulation. The harangue of the deputy of Chateau Thierry deſerves to be cited upon this account. "Charged, as I am," ſaid he, "to lay at the feet of this auguſt ſenate the tribute of our veneration, fidelity and unalterable attachment, together with our moſt earneſt wiſhes in its behalf, what expreſſions can do juſtice to my theme? Charged to dilate upon that meritorious conduct which has won to you the hearts of your country, what eloquence can be worthy of the ſubject? The eloquence, gentlemen, that lives in my boſom. In that boſom I find concentred the admiration and the love of France, thoſe altars which time can neither pollute nor deſtroy. The capital, the nation looks up to you as its tutelar divinity; the bowels of our common father are moved; his goodneſs can no longer be withheld from appearing. I think I hear the voice that calls you! Why cannot I, like Æneas of old, bear you upon my ſhoulders, and replace you in that ſanctuary, which ſo many oracles de-

monſtrate that juſtice has choſen for her favourite habitation!"

As the period approached when it ſeemed probable that government would be compelled to acknowledge its error, there appeared ſymptoms of a contention and rivalſhip between the members of adminiſtration, which of them ſhould ſucceed in throwing upon the other the blame of having adviſed the exile of the parliament. It was induſtriouſly reported by the friends of the archbiſhop, that the meaſure had originated with Mr. de Lamoignon, keeper of the ſeals, and had been ſuggeſted by motives of perſonal reſentment and vengeance againſt certain members of that body; as if it could be more injurious to the prelate to ſuppoſe that he had been prompted to an impolitic proceeding by an erroneous judgment, than to ſuppoſe that he conſented to what he knew to be wrong, from a criminal complaiſance to his colleague in office. Meanwhile Mr. de Lamoignon, who had probably not been averſe to the meaſure, was induced to ſit down in ſilence under the imputation, and to take upon himſelf the taſk of reviſing and retracting the counſel he was ſuppoſed to have given.

It was this moment of humiliation and weakneſs that was choſen by the archbiſhop of Toulouſe to decorate himſelf with a new title, and he was promoted on the twenty-ſeventh of Auguſt to the dignity of principal miniſter of the king of France. This elevation appeared to him the proper ſolace and compenſation of an imbecil adminiſtration, ruined finances, a diſtracted nation and the annihilation of political conſequence among the ſtates of Europe. It was ſpeedily followed by ſeveral other promotions; the count de Brienne, the miniſter's brother, having ſucceeded marſhal Segur as ſecretary of ſtate for the war department; the count de la Luzerne ſuperſeding the marſhal de Caſtries, who had long laboured under a dangerous malady, in the marine; and Mr. Lambert being appointed controller general in the room of Mr. de Villedeuil. Theſe reſignations might probably be in part occaſioned by the etiquette of the French court, no member of the cabinet having a right to an audience, when there is a principal miniſter, unleſs that miniſter be preſent.

We have now brought down our narrative to the period of the Dutch revolution, and the view we have given of the internal ſituation of France, will enable the reader to underſtand the conduct obſerved by the government of that kingdom in this memorable tranſaction. France was at this time too deeply embarraſſed in the conception of her own illuſtrious and immortal revolution, to be at liberty to watch over and protect the liberties of foreign nations. We paſs from the ſcene which has ſo long and ſo deſervedly engroſſed our attention to the general affairs of Europe.

CHAP.

CHAP. III.

Projected Exchange of Bavaria. Germanic League. Death of the King of Pruſſia. Policy of his Succeſſor. Affair of the Princeſs of Orange. Military Interference of Great Britain and Pruſſia to adjuſt the Diſſentions of the United Provinces. Alliances and Treaties.

AT the moment that we are writing Joſeph the Second emperor of Germany has cloſed his political career. During a certain period he was regarded, at leaſt by the generality of obſervers, as a prince of ſplendid talents and a virtuous propenſity. He had the appearance of comprehending and imbibing ideas of no common magnitude, and his heart ſeemed alive to generous and liberal feelings. But it was not long that he put a deception upon mankind. The verſatility and inconſtancy of his character ſoon found an opportunity to diſplay itſelf. He preſents us with a copy of the emperor Caligula without his atrocious cruelties. Reſtleſs, perturbed and impatient, active to no end, mutable from a pure averſion to regularity, he was ever engaged in a thouſand projects, each of which in its turn was deſtructive of its predeceſſor, each of them deſerted for ſome new idea of a more ſplendid and captivating figure, and not one through the whole courſe of his reign carried into complete execution.

A character like this in the humbler walks of private life would be wholly unworthy of a moment's attention. But a throne has the privilege to render its poſſeſſor in all caſes an object of enquiry, provided his meaſures, as thoſe of Joſeph did, originate principally in the features of his own mind. The prince, of whom we are ſpeaking, lived in a period of the hiſtory of Europe uncommonly critical and intereſting; and it is to be hoped that his ſtory will furniſh an intereſting leſſon both to princes and to people. Monarchs may be taught, by the example of a man, who acquired the hatred of his ſubjects in a degree almoſt unparalleled in modern ſtory, that caprice is of all defects the greateſt that can exiſt upon a throne, and that nothing can atone for the want of ſound, conſiſtent and uniform principles in the ſcience of government. Nations may learn, that the baſis of authority exiſts only in opinion, and that, when their grievances are ſo conſiderable as to deſtroy that foundation, it requires little effort indeed to ſhake the loftieſt throne, however defended by guards and protected by innumerable armies.

In our preceding volumes we have treated of many of the emperor's earlier tranſactions and deſigns, the revolutions and reforms he meditated in every part of his dominions, the confiſcation of monaſteries, the claim of the Schelde, the creation of a new electorate and the election of a king of the Romans. We alſo mentioned the project of the exchange of Bavaria; but this undertaking, as having occaſioned the league of princes for the preſervation of the Germanic conſtitution, and ſeeming ſufficiently calculated to influence in

ſome degree the future tranſactions of Europe, is entitled to a more conſiderable ſhare of our attention.

The firſt public notice, that was taken of the proceeding, originated from the duke of Deuxponts, nephew and heir to the elector of Bavaria, who in the month of January 1785 communicated to Frederic the Second king of Pruſſia the reſult of a conference he had held with count Romanzow, miniſter plenipotentiary of the court of Ruſſia to the diet of Frankfort, in which that nobleman had acquainted him with the nature of an agreement that had been entered into by the emperor Joſeph and his uncle the elector. The ſubſtance of this agreement was that the elector ſhould cede to the houſe of Auſtria the provinces of Upper and Lower Bavaria, the Upper Palatinate, the landgraviate of Leuchtenberg, and the duchies of Newbourg and Sultzbach; and that the emperor ſhould cede in exchange the Auſtrian Low Countries together with the advantages expected from Holland, with the exception of the duchy of Luxembourg and the county of Namur, and a reſerve in his favour of the artillery and national troops both of Bavaria and the Netherlands, together with a perpetual right of negociating loans in the latter. The emperor farther ſtipulated, in favour of the elector and the duke of Deuxponts, a gratuity of 1,715,000*l.* and a promiſe that he would exert his influence to procure the title of king of Burgundy to be annexed to the new dominions of the elector.

This communication is ſtated by the king of Pruſſia as having been accompanied by a declaration from count Romanzow to the duke of Deuxponts, that the treaty was in ſuch forwardneſs, that it was determined to carry it in execution; whether they obtained his conſent to the exchange or not, the count at the ſame time allowing the duke only eight days to form his determination. Theſe latter facts are expreſsly denied by the emperor and virtually by the czarina.

Neither the emperor nor his new ally ſeems to have been at all prepared for the univerſal alarm, which the diſcloſure of this project occaſioned through Germany and Europe. Politicians had already conceived a very ill impreſſion of Joſeph the Second. He had begun his political career, even before his acceſſion to his hereditary dominions, by a very extraordinary and unprecedented claim upon the ſucceſſion of Bavaria in 1778; and he appears to have proſecuted this claim in oppoſition to the inclinations of his mother and ſovereign, whom the ſucceſſion moſt naturally concerned. His demand of the navigation of the Schelde was of a very bold complexion; and, whatever were the original merits of the queſtion, had certainly been purſued with an unreaſonable portion of deſpotiſm, dogmatiſm and haughtineſs. He had for ſome time alſo been known to have meditated and diſcuſſed with the czarina the daring ſcheme of the conqueſt of Conſtantinople, and the entire partition of the Turkiſh dominions in Europe. A prince, who was neither reſtrained by the prepoſſeſſions of his ſubjects nor the original projects of his own mind from perpetual and uſeleſs innovation, could not be expected to pay much regard to the rights and intereſts of his neighbours.

His preſent treaty with the elector was ſtated by the king of Pruſſia as of the ſame character with the treaty he had concluded with that prince

prince on the third of January 1778, in which the latter had been unaccountably prevailed on to yield two thirds of Bavaria without any compenſation, rather than encounter the prompt hoſtilities of his Auſtrian rival. The hoary veteran of Berlin had upon that occaſion aſſumed to be the aſſertor and umpire of the Germanic conſtitution; and, though age and infirmity had ſince advanced upon him with rapid progreſs, he was not leſs ready than before to aſſume a lead in the public cauſe. He ſtated the exchange to be in the higheſt degree iniquitous and unequal. The population on both ſides was indeed nearly upon a par; but the extent of territory on the ſide of Bavaria more than doubled that of the Low Countries, and their reſpective revenues were equally diſproportioned. In Bavaria agriculture, commerce and finance were notoriouſly neglected; in the Auſtrian dominions on the other hand theſe reſources were extended to their utmoſt pitch: ſo that, while the former was capable of the moſt conſiderable improvements, the latter, in which the influence of the provincial ſtates was conſiderable, might rather be expected to decline in political reſources. But the circumſtance of moſt conſiderable importance was ſtated to be its vicinity to the great body of the Auſtrian dominions; ſo that, while the poſſeſſion of the Netherlands was a conſideration of little moment to the Germanic conſtitution in general, the propoſed exchange would ſecure to the emperor a chain of territory from the banks of the Rhine through a great part of the courſe of the Danube, and give him a preponderation altogether deſtructive of the political balance.

The king of Pruſſia and the duke of Deuxponts were exceedingly induſtrious in propagating theſe ideas, and they ſeem to have been received with cordiality and approbation by the princes of the empire. The alarm that was conceived and the cenſure that was expreſſed againſt the project of exchange produced its full effect upon the negociating parties, and both the emperor and the elector expreſsly diſavowed their having conceived it, the former in the Munich gazette, and the latter by an inſtruction to his ambaſſadors, declaring that he had never made any propoſal to the duke of Deuxponts for the exchange of Bavaria, and that he had at no time entertained, did now or ever ſhould entertain any ſuch views as were imputed to him.

It happened however, unfortunately for the honour and character of theſe ſovereign princes, that there were other parties concerned in the negociation, who either did not act upon the ſame principles as their German allies, or who had not been ſufficiently inſtructed reſpecting the conduct they intended to purſue. The treaty had been concluded under the auſpices of Ruſſia and France; and to them the king of Pruſſia addreſſed his remonſtrances, as having been guarantees of the treaty of Teſchen in 1779, in which the dominions of the elector palatine had been particularly ſecured againſt the encroachments of the emperor. Neither of theſe courts appears to have conceived the idea of denying the exiſtence of the negociation; and contented themſelves with anſwering, that the exchange had been propoſed as depending upon the voluntary arrangement of the parties, and that as the duke of Deuxponts

had refuſed his conſent, the propoſition of courſe became fruitleſs. The czarina however warmly defended the equity of the meaſure.

Frederic in the mean time did not confine his views to the ſubject which had immediately given riſe to his jealouſy, but determined out of this particular occaſion to originate a general principle, that ſhould apply to all future tranſactions of a ſimilar nature. He deſired, in the cloſe of a long life, which had been crowded with great public tranſactions, to leave as it were to his ſucceſſors a legacy of principles, the tendency of which ſhould be to perpetuate the preſent political ſituation of his country: and he accordingly exerted himſelf with great aſſiduity in negociating with the electors of Hanover and Saxony a league, for the preſervation of the Germanic conſtitution, and particularly to prevent ſuch ceſſions and exchanges of territory, as were contrary to the Golden Bull and other great chartularies, or might be ſuppoſed injurious to the balance of power in the empire. This treaty, the articles of which have never been made public, was concluded on the twenty-third of July 1785, and among the princes reported to have acceded to it, the names of ſome of whom however are to be regarded as doubtful, have been enumerated the elector of Mentz, the landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel, the duke of Brunſwic, the dukes of Weimar and Saxe Gotha and the prince of Anhalt. The Britiſh miniſtry appear to have entered into the tranſaction with particular readineſs, and it is from this period that we are to date the intimate connexion between the courts of London and Berlin, which has already produced conſiderable conſequences. The landgrave of Heſſe died on the thirty-firſt of October following, and was ſucceeded by his ſon; but this event ſeems to have produced no alteration in the political connexions of that country.

The emperor was not idle during theſe tranſactions, nor did he regard the politics of Pruſſia with a favourable eye. Prince Kaunitz, his prime miniſter, during the period in which the league was negociating, addreſſed in the month of June two ſeveral letters to the imperial ambaſſadors in the different courts of the empire, which were afterwards made public, directing them to remonſtrate againſt the irregular and hoſtile nature of the league, which could not but be regarded as perſonal to the emperor himſelf. With reſpect to Joſeph, he had during a conſiderable part of this period been abſent in an excurſion to the ſtates of Italy, and did not return to his capital till a few weeks before the ſigning of the treaty. The meaſure itſelf was vindicated by its royal author in a circular letter to the courts of Germany on the tenth of Auguſt, and in a ſimilar addreſs to the different ſtates of Europe of the twenty-third of that month.

Theſe papers produced a prolix and laborious reply on the part of the court of Vienna, and a rejoinder equally tedious from the Pruſſian government. The emperor particularly exerted himſelf to prove, that there was nothing in the meditated exchange contrary either to natural right or the laws of the empire, and that of conſequence the confederation of princes was to be regarded as an unjuſt abridgment of the prerogative of ſovereigns, and a conſpiracy of a part of a great political body to rule over and dictate to the whole. No peace could ever be negociated among contending powers,

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if the party, that was the loſer in the conteſt, had not the power of ceding to the victorious adverſary a part of thoſe dominions under the ſanction of a treaty, which had been wreſted from him by the violence of war. There was indeed an article in the Golden Bull, which forbad to an elector of the empire the alienation of the dominions that entitled him to that privilege. But in anſwer to this it was alledged by the emperor, that Bavaria had not been raiſed to the rank of an electorate, an aſſertion which was controverted by the king of Pruſſia, till after the promulgation of the Golden Bull; and he denied, that the chartulary could intend to provide for perpetuating any forms of election, that had not exiſted nor even been in contemplation till a more recent period. It had farther been ſaid, that certain treaties ſtipulated for the entail and indiviſibility of the Bavarian dominions; but in anſwer to theſe the emperor produced the treaty of Baden of 1714, expreſsly providing and permitting an exchange, at a time when it was ſuppoſed that the elector, in conſequence of ſome miſcarriages and diſappointments, would deſire wholly to withdraw himſelf from his hereditary dominions. He added, that the guarantee of other powers in a queſtion of this nature was only intended to ſecure the execution of certain family ſettlements and compacts, and could never be of validity to prevent the family by mutual conſent from changing thoſe ſettlements. Finally he quoted the compact of the Bavarian family in the year 1771, in which it had been directly ſtipulated, that ſuch exchanges as were dictated by neceſſity or led to obvious advantage ſhould be regarded as valid.

Such are the outlines of one of the laſt tranſactions of a monarch, whoſe abilities have ſeldom been equalled by the hereditary poſſeſſor of a throne, and whoſe hiſtory, as exhibiting an intereſting ſpecimen of the application of ſhining talents to the direction of a deſpotic government, will long be ſtudied by all thoſe, who deem human tranſactions and the ſtrength and weakneſs of human underſtanding a ſubject worthy of their ſpeculations. We have already related in our narrative of the diſſentions of the United Provinces, his attempt in the cloſe of this year to ſettle the diſtracted affairs of that unfortunate republic. The remainder of his life was diſtinguiſhed by no very conſiderable public tranſaction. He was ſeized about this time with a complication of diſorders, and it became evident that he could not long ſtruggle with the infirmities of age and the encroachments of diſeaſe. In the mean time he rather haſtened the cloſe of the eventful ſcene, by refuſing to employ the proper precautions of regimen and diet, and rather chooſing to indulge to the impatience of his temper and the gratification of his appetite. Frederic the Second expired on the ſeventeenth of Auguſt 1786.

The acceſſion of his nephew, who ſucceeded to the throne by the appellation of Frederic William the Second, was not immediately attended with any remarkable event. The new king was not even ſuſpected of poſſeſſing any extraordinary degree of abilities. Thoſe perſons however, who had figured to themſelves the Pruſſian monarchy as a ſort of fairy creation, too weak in its foundations and disjointed in its ſtructure, not immediately to fall to

pieces, when the hand that ſuſtained it was removed, found themſelves diſappointed. The emperor indeed is ſaid to have entertained views upon Sileſia, a province which had been ſo unjuſtly wreſted from his predeceſſors by the late monarch. But upon maturer conſideration he found ſomething ſo formidable and ſtrong in the power by which it was retained, that he did not think it adviſable to make the attempt. On the other hand it had been conceived by thoſe who principally deſired ſuch an event, that the preſent moment was the period, in which a military interference might be expected on the part of the Pruſſian monarch in favour of the ſtadtholder of the United Provinces. The late king, they ſaid, had been reſtrained by nothing but the infirmity and unenterpriſing ſpirit of advanced age from taking an active ſhare in the conteſt; and Frederic William had an additional motive to this proceeding, as the princeſs of Orange, whom the quarrel principally intereſted, was his ſiſter. It was not however thought adviſable in the commencement of a new reign to engage in ſo arduous a tranſaction.

There were three perſons, who were named by ſpeculative enquirers, as the probable miniſters of the new ſovereign. The firſt of theſe was prince Henry, his uncle, who had diſtinguiſhed himſelf with reputation in the wars of Frederic, and who was at the head of what was ſtyled the French party in the court of Berlin. But the king appears to have entertained no particular kindneſs for his uncle, and that prince is ſaid not to have proceeded with the caution, judgment and addreſs, which would have been neceſſary to ſecure his advancement. The ſecond candidate was baron de Hertzberg, the moſt active miniſter of the late king, and who is known throughout Europe for his annual panegyrics, printed in the Tranſactions of the Berlin Academy, upon the government of his maſter. Hertzberg was the advocate of the ſtadtholderian cauſe, and the determined adverſary of the intrigues of France in favour of the oppoſite party. He appears to have fallen into many of the ſame errors of raſhneſs, indiſcretion and vanity as prince Henry his rival; but they produced an effect leſs diſadvantageous to him, as his character and rank rendered him leſs formidable to the prince on the throne. The laſt of thoſe perſons who ſeemed to have a natural pretence to the ſole adminiſtration was the duke of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttle, brother-in-law to the king of England, and a general in the ſervice of the king of Pruſſia. This prince has been ſuppoſed to be the moſt accompliſhed ſoldier in Europe; and he adds to this merit many of the qualifications of a ſtateſman. He appears to poſſeſs in no common degree the art of gaining the affections and modelling the inclinations of the perſons with whom he has to tranſact; and the affairs of his domeſtic government are adminiſtered with the moſt ſcrupulous punctuality and economy.

The perſonal character of the king appears to have decided the queſtion among theſe powerful rivals. Deſtitute of talents, of energy and virtue, he deſired however to affect the poſſeſſion of every one of them. At the ſame time therefore that he felt an unconquerable averſion to buſineſs, he was determined not to have a principal miniſter. This reſolution altogether cut off at leaſt for the

the preſent the pretenſions of prince Henry and the duke of Brunſwic. The moment they were called into office, the king muſt of neceſſity dwindle into a cypher. Nor did Hertzberg himſelf obtain a deciſive victory. He was permitted to continue in office, and appears to have poſſeſſed as much influence as any of the oſtenſible miniſters of the king. But his recommendations were frequently ſuperſeded, and his meaſures thwarted, particularly his favourite plan of a war in Holland.

The government of Frederic William commenced, as from theſe preliminaries may eaſily be imagined, rather with the affectation and appearances of wiſe and ſpirited proceedings, than with the reality. The air was particularly ſtudied of remedying the errors and counteracting the predilections of the late king. The component members of adminiſtration remained indeed for the moſt part the ſame, but many leſſer changes were carefully introduced. The judges, who had ſuffered in the affair of the miller Arnold, where the late king ſeems to have been at firſt ſeduced by the appearance of innocence in the ſufferer, and it is to be feared perſiſted from the contemptible cowardice of not daring to avow his miſtake, were reſtored or acquitted. German literature had been treated with neglect and contempt from an undue partiality to the literature of France, and in order to prove the equity of the ſucceſſor, a penſion was beſtowed upon Rammler, a German poet, and loud profeſſions diſſeminated of patronage to the learned of that country. The receipts of the Pruſſian treaſury had been known for ſeveral years to have exceeded the expenditure, and this circumſtance afforded an opportunity of diſplaying the royal humanity and attention to the welfare of the people. A part of the taxes of government had been collected in the late reign under a ſyſtem, borrowed from France, and known by the appellation of régie, moſt of the collectors being alſo natives of that country. This régie was aboliſhed, and an intention profeſſed of ſubſtituting a more liberal mode of collection in the hands of natives. Nor did government ſtop here. A commiſſion was iſſued to inveſtigate the vices of the régie; and the meaſures of its principal conductor, who, while by cruel and tyrannical methods he filled the public treaſury, was ſuppoſed by peculation to have converted certain ſums to his private emolument, were ſcrutiniſed with great ſeverity. Laſtly, whereas Frederic the Second had tranſacted buſineſs ſeparately with the ſeveral departments of adminiſtration, it was now thought proper to reſtore an inſtitution, called the grand directory, by which the miniſters deliberated in concert upon the meaſures of government. This laſt change ſeems rather to have taken place in appearance than in reality.

One of the topics, reſpecting which the late king had been moſt remarkably ill-informed, was that of commerce. He had upon all occaſions been the friend of privileges and monopoly, and appears to have conceived, that he could not more effectually contribute to the wealth of his dominions, than by curbing the efforts of his ſubjects with a thouſand artificial and unnatural limitations. This ſubject very properly occupied a part of the politics of the new reign. Together with the régie fell the monopoly of tobacco

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and the monopoly of coffee; but by this alteration the revenue was ſaid to be a conſiderable loſer, and it was thought neceſſary in part at leaſt to indemnify government for the ſacrifice that was made. For this purpoſe a capitation or poll-tax upon the heads of families was introduced, an impoſition, the moſt unpopular in its principle and the moſt oppreſſive in its operation that could well have been deviſed. This, as partaking of the nature of a commutation, was probably ſuppoſed not to contravene the extraordinary declaration of the king's miniſter, appointed for that purpoſe to the ſtates of Brandenbourg on the acceſſion, that the buſineſs of the preſent reign ſhould be, without impoſing any new taxes, to lighten as much as poſſible the burthen and amount of thoſe which already exiſted. About the ſame time a reſolution was adopted at the inſtigation of general Moellendorf, one of the firſt military characters of Pruſſia, to aboliſh an iniquitous contribution called le verd, by which, under pretext of inuring the cavalry to the practice of foraging, the lands of the inhabitants were liable to be pillaged during three months of the year under the ſanction of ſovereign authority.

We have mentioned the ineffectual efforts of Hertzberg to induce Frederic William to commence his carreer with a war in Holland for the ſupport of his brother-in-law the ſtadtholder. But, though his arguments did not appear for the preſent to coincide with the inclinations of his maſter, he was not however in every reſpect unſucceſsful. The ſelection of the count de Goertz, to announce the king's acceſſion to the aſſembly of the ſtates general, was conceived to be made at his nomination; and this meaſure produced a ſort of amicable conferences on the part of Pruſſia and France, between that nobleman on one hand and Mr. de Rayneval on the other, which conſumed the remainder of the year 1786, and from which ſome hopes had been conceived of adjuſting theſe long and complicated diſſentions. They broke off in January 1787 with mutual diſſatisfaction on both ſides, each being diſguſted with the conduct of the ſtadtholder, whoſe meaſures were characteriſed by a folly and precipitation, that did not conciliate the eſteem of any party to his perſonal character.

The court of London ſeems during this period to have acted a part ſimilar to that of the Pruſſian miniſter, and to have ſignified to the court of Berlin, that, if they were willing to decide by military force upon the diſſentions of Holland, they might depend upon the Britiſh government for a zealous and active co-operation *. So forward were we within a period of three years from the preſent time to trample upon and deſtroy the immunities and liberty of every country but our own! Nor is this to be imputed as an individual fault to the perſons who held the reins of government: the people of England, and every political party among us, influenced it ſhould ſeem by certain chimerical ideas reſpecting the balance of Europe, ſtrove with each other who ſhould be moſt eager and diſtinguiſhed in aſſerting the cauſe of deſpotiſm, and rivetting the chains of ſlavery upon our republican neighbours.

* Hiſtoire Secrete de la Cour de Berlin, vol. ii. lettre 37.

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In the mean time the politics of Pruſſia were cautious, and probably irreſolute. But, though irreſolution can ſcarcely give us in any caſe a favourable impreſſion of the mind that is under its influence, it produced in the preſent inſtance many of the effects of prudence. The impoveriſhed ſtate of the French finances had now begun to diſplay itſelf, and that celebrated people became every moment weaker in their government and more embarraſſed in their ſituation. In the mean time they were the enemy, from whom the party of the ſtadtholderians had the moſt to fear. Almoſt from the commencement of the Dutch republic they had favoured the oligarchical branch of its government: their activity in this reſpect had rather increaſed than diminiſhed during the preſent diſſentions, and the patriots built with the utmoſt confidence upon the interference of France, as a complete balance to any violence they might apprehend from their neighbours. This confidence ſeemed every day to become more precarious.

We left the Dutch in our regiſter for the year 1787, after a long period of violent and angry contention, preparing on both ſides to decide their differences with the ſword. The ſtadtholder had marched his little army to the neighbourhood of Utrecht, a city that had been the centre and ſpring of democratical principles and generous exertion. The inhabitants however had taken the ſage precaution of detaining within their walls the wives and children of the members of the pretended provincial ſtates reſiding at Amersfort, moſt of whom were inhabitants of the capital; and this circumſtance, together with the ſmallneſs of the forces on either ſide and the accurate balance of parties, held the deciſion in ſuſpence, and for the moſt part reſtricted the war to petty ſkirmiſhes and the conteſt of corruption.

The ſtadtholderian treaſury was probably ſupplied with reſources by his political allies, the monarchs of Great Britain and Pruſſia; the aſſembly of the ſtates general, after having long maintained a cautious neutrality upon the ſubject, had lately declared in his favour; and theſe conſiderations had turned the balance of pecuniary ſeduction among the military altogether in his favour. To remedy this, the city of Utrecht, the capital of the province of that name, and whoſe relative importance was ſo great, that it had ſometimes been aſſerted, that their deputies alone formed the provincial ſtates, and that thoſe of Amersfort, Wyk, Montfort and Rhenen were admitted merely as aſſeſſors, thought proper to proceed one ſtep farther than it had yet done. Their ſenate had already declared the aſſembly of Amersfort null and illegal; they had refuſed to ſuffer their quota of revenue to remain at the diſpoſal of that meeting; and they now undertook to revive the provincial aſſembly within their walls, which they repreſented as having laid dormant, ſince the ſeceſſion of the pretended ſtates to the town of Amersfort.

The firſt act of the new ſtates, which met on the eleventh of June 1787, was to elect deputies to the aſſembly of the ſtates general. The provinces, which had avowedly enliſted themſelves on either ſide, were Holland, Overyſſel and Groningen for the reformation of abuſes, and Guelderland, Zealand and Frieſland for maintaining the conſtitution in the form in which it had lately been practiſed.

practiſed. The nominal ſtates of Utrecht reſident at Amersfort formed the caſting voice; and, if by the preſent proceeding the inhabitants of the metropolis could either turn out their adverſaries, and change the vote of Utrecht from a ſtadtholderian voice to a patriotic one, or if, being admitted to balance the deputies from Amersfort, they could reduce the vote of the province to practical inefficiency, they would in either caſe deprive the houſe of Orange of that countenance of the ſtates general, which gave to their cauſe a plauſibility among foreign powers, and decided upon the event of many important queſtions among themſelves.

We are unable to account for the manœuvre by which theſe deputies immediately upon their arrival at the Hague were admitted into the aſſembly of the ſtates general, and that even to the excluſion of thoſe of Amersfort, ſo that the majority of this important body inſtantly reverted from the party of the ſtadtholder to that of his adverſaries. The firſt meaſure adopted by them in this ſituation was to iſſue their mandate to the troops in the ſervice of Holland, directing them in all caſes to yield an unreſerved obedience to the orders of their provincial repreſentatives. The council of ſtate however, the ordinary medium of the executive government, refuſed to tranſmit this mandate; and the ſtates general themſelves ſpeedily reverted to their former line of proceeding. They did not indeed think proper to expel the deputies of the city of Utrecht, that had once been admitted, but the deputies of Amersfort were authoriſed to ſit with them, and, being reinforced by a freſh deputation from the ſame quarter, outvoted their competitors, and reſtored the voice of the province to the ſtadtholderian party. The tranſaction however ſeems upon the whole to have been advantageous to the oppoſition, the aſſembly now obviouſly bearing the appearance of an equal diviſion, and the ſtadtholderian members not adventuring in this enfeebled ſtate to adopt any peremptory meaſures.

But the fatal event, which was ultimately to deſtroy the proſpects of liberty in Holland, now began to diſcloſe itſelf. The court of Great Britain may be ſuppoſed to have been induſtrious in urging upon the king of Pruſſia the project they had ſuggeſted in the commencement of his reign; and the more cautious cabinet of Berlin was continually inſtigated by the political ſituation of France to lend a more favourable hearing to the propoſition. The more evident it became that Verſailles would ſcarcely venture to interfere, the more influential in the breaſt of Frederic William were the motives of fraternal regard, ambition and imaginary policy. The ambaſſadors of London and Berlin concurred towards the cloſe of May in delivering in memorials to the ſtates general, in which they urged in ſtronger terms than they had hitherto done, their mortification and ſorrow at beholding the prince of Orange ſtill ſuffering under the oppreſſion of a party, which had been formed for the deſtruction of his prerogatives. They declared, that it was impoſſible for them to witneſs the injuries ſuſtained by the ſtadtholder with indifference, and offered their mediation to adjuſt the diſſentions of the republic. The ſtates of Holland it may be ſuppoſed did not regard theſe advances with cordiality, and having voted that they would apply to no mediator but the king

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of France, communicated their reſolution to the ambaſſador of that monarch.

The incident, which decided upon the iſſue of theſe tranſactions, is involved in ambiguity and myſtery. The prince of Orange returned in the cloſe of June from his camp of Zeiſt in the neighbourhood of Utrecht to hisreſidenceat Nimeguen. He remained there only a few days, and, departing for Amersfort, the princeſs, his conſort, ſet out at the ſame time upon a journey to the Hague. Her character had long been known to be maſculine, active and adventurous. She had appeared as the principal figure in all negociations between the prince and his adverſaries, and the great conſtitutional queſtions that were at iſſue ſeemed rather to concern the princeſs than her huſband. Bold therefore and extraordinary meaſures might be expected from her. But in this proceeding there was ſomething ſo unexpected and peculiar, that it was impoſſible not to conſider it as flowing from ſome unknown ſpring, which alone could reconcile ſo unaccountable a phenomenon. The princeſs, when ſhe undertook to explain the motives of her journey, declared, that ſhe had adopted the idea with no view, than by her perſonal intervention to prevent the diſaſters of a civil war, and to adjuſt the differences that had ariſen reſpecting the conſtitution of the ſtate. But in what way could her appearance at the Hague contribute to theſe purpoſes? Did ſhe flatter herſelf, that her perſonal attractions or the charms of her eloquence were to annihilate at once the dictates of intereſt and the empire of prejudice? Again, could ſecrecy be in any way neceſſary to ſuch an undertaking? She intended immediately upon her arrival to have ſignified her errand to the ſtates general and the ſtates of Holland. Why not make this communication before ſhe ſet out? Were they to be taken by ſurpriſe? Could ſhe hope, in the preſent ſtate of hoſtility, to make a journey from one ſide of the province of Holland to another without being even perceived by the enemy?

It might perhaps be thought a degree of over-refinement to ſuppoſe, that the journey of the princeſs was intended to produce the conſequences that actually followed; that England and Pruſſia at length concurred in their deſire of ſettling the contentions of Holland by arms, but that they conceived ſomething more was neceſſary to juſtify their proceedings in the eyes of Europe, than the ſuppoſed injuries inflicted upon the ſtadtholder in the character of firſt magiſtrate of the republic. Such an idea, if it could be admitted, would indeed expoſe to equal contempt the courts that conceived ſuch a project, and the princeſs that executed it. It would teach us to look upon politics as a ſort of dexterous game, the perfection of which is ſuppoſed to lie in falſehood and hypocriſy, and the making men believe our intentions to be other than they are. In that caſe the heroine of the ſcene, while ſhe pretended every friendly and philanthropical purpoſe, and would be thought anxious to remove by the gentleſt means the calamities of her country, was in reality the incendiary to ſcatter the firebrands of war, and, in revenge for her ſuppoſed injuries, to expoſe the republic to an inſolent and arbitrary conqueror.

Meanwhile it is eaſy to imagine the conſtruction that would be put upon

upon it by the adverſe party. In the preſent divided and doubtful ſtate of affairs it was impoſſible for them not to be attentive and ſuſpicious, and they could not but regard the clandeſtine approach of their moſt artful and formidable adverſary to the ſeat of government with an eye of jealouſy. The friends of the ſtadtholder, eſpecially among the lower claſs, were numerous even in the province of Holland, and the inhabitants of the Hague were particularly attached to his cauſe. Tumult and violence had through the whole hiſtory of the republic been the engines of the ſtadtholderian cauſe, and were dangers particularly apprehended by the patriots of Holland. Theſe they conceived to be the inevitable conſequences of the ſudden and unexpected appearance of the princeſs of Orange; and with this as a principle they preſently concluded, that the deſign was to overturn their labours by a coup de main, and by the artful intervention of a mob to effect an univerſal revolution in favour of the ſtadtholder. Certain events, whether caſually or by deſign, occurred at this time, which ſeemed to juſtify their ſuſpicions. Riots were committed in the cloſe of the month of June nearly at the ſame period at Nimeguen, Arnheim, Doeſburg, Zutphen, Thiel, Bommel, Helvoet, Breda and Middleburg, attended with inſult to the perſons of the patriots, and the deſtruction of their property and houſes.

It was therefore natural that the princeſs ſhould be ſtopped in her progreſs by the officers of the republic, and that their conduct in this reſpect ſhould be approved by the provincial aſſembly. Relays of horſes had been provided for herſelf and her train, conſiſting of four coaches, and this circumſtance had firſt given ſuſpicion to the neighbouring peaſantry. The field deputies at Woerden immediately detached a party of infantry and twenty horſe, who ſtationed themſelves upon the road from Schoonhoven to Gouda. By this party the princeſs's journey was intercepted on the twenty-eighth of June, and two of the deputies from Woerden appearing preſently after, obliged her to return immediately to Schoonhoven. From that place ſhe wrote letters to the ſecretary of the ſtates general and the grand penſionary of Holland, deſiring the former to communicate what had happened to the ſuperior aſſembly, and expreſſing to the latter her inclination to continue her journey to the Hague. The ſtates general enforced to the provincial aſſembly the demands of the princeſs; but the latter came to no farther reſolution, than that of taking the letter of the princeſs ad referendum, to be examined by their conſtituents of the different towns of Holland, and declaring their approbation of the conduct of their deputies. Upon this intelligence the princeſs returned to Nimeguen, from whence ſhe addreſſed a letter in terms of ſtrong remonſtrance to the ſtates of Holland, complaining, that, while they refuſed her demand of being permitted to proceed, they publicly manifeſted a diſtruſt of her word and the ſincerity of her intentions. She demanded an ample and public reparation for the affront ſhe had ſuſtained; and ſhe declared, that from this moment the conſequences, that were ſo much to be feared, and that ſhe had flattered herſelf to have prevented by her intervention, muſt all be charged upon thoſe, who had counteracted

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her efforts, and ſecured to themſelves an influence that would be fatal to their country. Meanwhile, notwithſtanding the humiliating reſolutions and inſulting treatment of the ſtates of Holland, ſhe was ſtill ardently attached to the country in general, and the people from whom ſhe had received ſo many marks of affection.

The military interference of the king of Pruſſia appears to have been already decided on, and accordingly a few days only elapſed after this memorable tranſaction, before his troops were put in motion, and their march directed to Cleves, a ducal city of the Pruſſian dominions in the weſt of Germany. This meaſure was accompanied with a numerous promotion of military officers, at the head of which was the duke of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttle commander in chief. It was not till after ſome progreſs had been made in theſe preparations, that the Pruſſian ambaſſador delivered in a memorial, dated on the tenth of July, to the ſtates of Holland, in which the king expreſſed his extreme ſenſibility to the outrage that had been committed on the perſon of his ſiſter; and inſiſted in the ſtrongeſt and moſt urgent manner upon a public ſatisfaction for the injury, and the puniſhment of thoſe by whom it had been committed.

The anſwer of the ſtates of Holland diſplayed a ſufficient degree of firmneſs and intrepidity. They declared, that they had too much reſpect for the king and his illuſtrious houſe, to have endured the commiſſion of any outrage againſt the perſon of the princeſs; adding at the ſame time, that they truſted that the king would treat them as became a ſovereign ſtate, and that they could not believe that he intended to elevate his ſiſter above the conſtitutional ſovereign. Had they been previouſly acquainted with her intention, they would have remonſtrated to her the diſaffection the ſtadtholder had diſplayed againſt the ſovereign authority, the different manœuvres adopted by his party on the very day the princeſs ſet out for the Hague, and the diſtracted ſtate of the country in general, as reaſons to induce her to deſiſt from her enterpriſe. With reſpect to the conduct of their deputies they obſerved, that, charged as they were to watch againſt every occaſion of diſorder, they had been unable to act otherwiſe than they had done; the whole tranſaction had been equally decent and reſpectful towards the princeſs; and the ſtates found themſelves incapable of puniſhing a conduct, that had probably prevented the ſeat of their reſidence from being made a ſcene of tumult and confuſion.

It was in the midſt of this tranſaction, that the ſtates of Holland preſented to the ſtates general their propoſal for ſoliciting the mediation of the court of Verſailles, the reſolution for that purpoſe, though it had been long in agitation, not having been ultimately adopted by the provincial aſſembly till the ſixth of July. The French ambaſſador, in perfect concert, as it ſhould ſeem, with this great body, preſented on the eighteenth a memorial to the ſtates general, in which he declared the king to be highly ſenſible of this mark of the confidence of the republic, and ready to co-operate by every means in his power for the reſtoration of harmony and peace. He accordingly ſuggeſted the propriety of the ſtates general interfering to

put an immediate ſtop to the hoſtile proceedings of ſeveral of the provinces. In the mean time, that France might not be behind-hand with Pruſſia, her repreſentations were ſupported by certain military operations, and a body of fourteen thouſand men was ordered to aſſemble near Givet in the biſhopric of Liege, under the direction of the count de Rochambeau, late commander in chief of the French auxiliaries in North America.

The two parties that divided the republic daily aſſumed a more menacing appearance. The adventure of the princeſs was immediately ſucceeded by the ſurpriſe of Wyk on the part of the ſtadtholder. This place, though of conſiderable importance, as being one of the keys of the ſluices, which by their fitneſs for artificial inundation conſtituted the natural defence of the province, was found entirely unprovided with the means of reſiſtance. Its garriſon did not amount to more than one hundred men, and it ſurrendered without ſtriking a blow. A ſimilar ſucceſs attended upon the ſtadtholderian expeditions againſt Haſſelt and Harderwyk. At Deventer the capital of the province of Overyſſel they were repulſed; Haſſelt was ſoon after recovered by the patriots; and they were alſo fortunate in a ſally from the garriſon of Utrecht, which is ſaid to have produced a deſertion of two hundred men from the ſtadtholderian army. Theſe deſertions had already commenced in conſequence of an increaſe of pay that was voted to the military by the ſtates of Holland. The manœuvres of the ſtadtholder were probably at this time taken under the direction of the Pruſſian generals.

On the fourth of Auguſt an addreſs was preſented to the ſtates of Holland by the armed volunteers of the provinces, requiring that, as they had already ſuſpended the prince of Orange from the office of commander in chief, they would now, upon the eve of the probable commencement of hoſtilities, alſo ſuſpend him from the functions of ſtadtholder and admiral general. The propoſition being taken ad referendum, was almoſt immediately adopted by the ſenate of Amſterdam, and by the fourteenth nine towns had declared in favour of the ſuſpenſion. But the more urgent conſiderations, which at this time began to engroſs the attention of the ſtates, prevented the queſtion from ever being brought to an ultimate deciſion. Meantime the ſtate of affairs, which daily became more perilous and alarming, inſpired miſtruſt and lukewarmneſs into the leaſt zealous of the republican party; and the majority in the provincial aſſembly, which had lately conſiſted of thirteen voices to ſix, became now reduced to eleven. To prevent the fatal conſequences of this change, the camp formed at Woerden was ordered to make a circuitous progreſs through the province, and under their influence the town councils were changed, particularly at Delft and Hoorn; the more conſiderable towns remaining unalterably attached to the patriotic party. By the ſame means the rural aſſociations in favour of the ſtadtholder were overpowered and diſperſed; and the inhabitants of the Hague kept in awe, who ſeem to have diſplayed a continual diſpoſition to enforce the cauſe of the prince by riot and diſorder. Frieſland, a province immemorially diſtinguiſhed by an ardent zeal for liberty, and which appears

n ſome late tranſactions to have been ather overborne by cabal, than con- erted in diſpoſition, endeavoured to eſume its former independence. Franeker in particular declared it- elf in favour of the democratical auſe, and an aſſembly of ſtates was onvened in that place in the be- inning of September, by which hat province ſeemed likely to be rought into a ſituation not leſs di- ided than that of the province of Utrecht. Preparations were made bout the end of Auguſt for the ege of Utrecht; batteries were rected on each ſide, and ſome inun- ations effected. But both ſides ere unwilling to proceed to extremi- es, and waited with anxious ſuſ- ence for that interference of fo- eign powers, which ſeemed every ay to become more inevitable.

A ſecond memorial of the king of ruſſia upon the ſubject of the treat- ent experienced by his ſiſter was elivered to the ſtates of Holland n the third of Auguſt. He de- lared, that he regarded the ſuſpi- ions of tumult to have taken place t the Hague on the arrival of the rinceſs, which were announced in e anſwer to his former memorial, a new offence. He inſiſted upon peremptory and complete ſatisfac- on, and added, that he expected om their prudence and their far- er deliberations upon the ſubject immediate and unequivocal an- ver. In the mean time the diſpute as put into a ſeeming train of ne- ociation, or rather a hoſtile con- ltation was held at Nimeguen re- ecting the moſt ready and effectual eans of reducing the ſtates of Hol- nd to diſcretionary ſubmiſſion. In is conſultation the duke of Brunſ- ic aſſiſted on the part of the king Pruſſia, and Mr. James Grenville, couſin to the marquis of Bucking- ham, on the part of Great Britain. The ultimatum of the king of Pruſſia is ſaid to have been, a requeſt from the ſtates of Holland to the princeſs of Orange that ſhe would viſit their province, the reſtoration of the ſtadt- holder to all his conſtitutional func- tions and to the command of the garriſon of the Hague, the recal of the troops of Holland from the ter- ritories of the province of Utrecht, and the appointment of mediators to ſit at Utrecht for adjuſting the diſ- putes of that province, two of them to be ſelected from among the depu- ties in the ſtates general, their de- liberations to be held in concert with the courts of Pruſſia, England and France, whoſe interference had been demanded, and their deciſion to be final. The ſtates of Holland were required to anſwer theſe pro- poſitions in fourteen days, the con- greſs of mediation if it took place was to aſſemble in ſix weeks, and their conſultations to terminate in three months from their commencement.

A circumſtance took place at this time for which it is not eaſy to aſ- ſign a ſufficient reaſon, but which is probably to be traced to the incon- ſiſtent and wavering character of the archbiſhop of Toulouſe. The mar- quis de Verac, who had for ſome time been the French ambaſſador at the Hague, who had under former adminiſtrations aſſiſted the cabals of oppoſition in the ſtates of Holland, and for that reaſon was looked up to by the republican party as a princi- pal ſource of their confidence, was recalled home. Perhaps this mea- ſure was intended as a leſſon to the party to warn them to greater temper and moderation in their pro- ceedings. But it did not pro- duce that effect. France had ori-

ginally assisted in blowing up the flame of civil discord, but it was not in the power of France to extinguish it. It however effected another purpose. It enabled all Europe to predict, what the French administration itself was probably unable to predict, that it was uncertain whether the French would at all cooperate with their Belgic allies, but that, if they did, their co-operation would be feeble, tardy, irresolute and ineffectual.

The allies of the stadtholder, being thus eventually delivered from all apprehensions of speedy hostility on the part of France, had still however something to apprehend from other European powers, and particularly from the emperor. This prince, who could not but behold with a jealous eye every accession of power in the scale of Prussia, is said to have already signified to that court, that he could not be an indifferent spectator of any violent measures that might be adopted against the Dutch republic. The stadtholderian powers however discovered the means of engaging the attention of the emperor without suffering him to disturb them in their projects. There is considerable reason to believe that the declaration of war of the Turks against the Russians, which took place about this time, owed its existence to their intrigues, and was designed for the purpose we have mentioned, it being considered by them as very uncertain what period of time it would require to settle their projected revolution in Holland upon a permanent basis. Thus Europe and human nature would seem to be indebted to them, not only for the destruction of the liberties of a celebrated and venerable republic, but for precipitating at least, as a subordinate step in this transaction, a war, which has already raged for near three years, which has cut off in its progress thousands of the human race, which has actually drawn five great European powers into its vortex, and which threatens every moment to extend its destructive contagion to countries the most distant from the original scene of action.

Sir James Harris, the ambassador of the court of London, presented his public memorial to the states general upon the subject of mediation on the fourteenth of August. The court of Versailles had been induced to explain itself upon this article by the immediate application of the states of Holland, and the English ambassador assigned as the motive of his declaration the favourable sentiments respecting Great Britain that had been expressed by the states of Zealand; at the same time mentioning the anxiety of the king for the restoration of their internal tranquillity, the maintenance of their real constitution, and the preservation of the rights and privileges of all its members. The memorial of Prussia, which was intended as the counterpart of this, and which was not brought forward till the fifth of September, spoke in a still higher tone. It was presented at the instigation of the states of Guelderland and Amersfort, and expressed the interest which was taken by Frederic William in their peace and tranquillity; and his ardent desire, that the ancient constitution, which had been shaken to its foundations, should be re-established by an amicable adjustment, and that they might radically and finally extirpate the calamities that threatened the republic.

The answer of the states of Holland

land to the memorial of Mr. de Thulemeyer, was delivered on the eighth of the same month. It had been voted upon the proposition of the deputies of Dort, the majority consisting only of ten voices; and it did not materially differ from their answer to his first memorial on the subject of the princess. The proposition of the senate of Amsterdam, which was rejected, was for sending, as a particular mark of respect, two deputies to the king at Berlin, to explain all the circumstances of this unfortunate transaction.

The next day, which was Sunday, Mr. de Thulemeyer delivered to the grand pensionary of Holland, a verbal note, containing the regular and public ultimatum of the king of Prussia in this interesting controversy. He required, that the states should write a letter to the princess, acknowledging the error of which they had been guilty in imputing to her dishonourable views, requesting her presence among them, and promising to punish those whom she should point out as having offended her. She at the same time engaged to mediate with the king her brother a mitigation of the penalty. The king offered to choose the Hague or any other town of the republic as the scene of the conferences; and in the mean time demanded, that the states of Holland should at least leave the matters at issue as they now stood, and not proceed to any suspension or deposition of the stadtholder from his functions. An answer to this notification was required to be given in four days from its communication.

Scarcely had Mr. de Thulemeyer thus executed the last directions of his court, before a manifesto appeared, signed by the duke of Brunswic, expressive of the painful necessity that was imposed upon the king of marching his troops into the territories of the republic, and thus obtaining satisfaction for the great and insupportable outrage that had been committed against his sister; an outrage that sprung only from the disaffection and malevolence of one half of the provincial assembly of a single province. Under these circumstances the duke was reduced to the necessity of passing through the territories of provinces, that had no share in the offensive conduct of the province of Holland; the inhabitants might however rest assured, that no violence would be committed by the troops, and that the king did not propose in the smallest degree to invade the constitution, the liberties and tranquillity of the republic. He expected in return that they would quietly permit the march of his army, and he required them to furnish his forces with every thing that might be necessary to them. Of the same date with this manifesto a letter was delivered from the king of Prussia to the states of Overyssel, requiring a free passage for his troops; a demand, which this assembly had the magnanimity and gallantry, though unable to counteract the march of the Prussians, to refuse, because it was contrary to the tenour of the union of Utrecht. Meanwhile in this ultimate crisis, the states of Holland were willing to advance one step further in the mode of concession, and declared to Mr. de Thulemeyer their readiness to send two deputies to Berlin, to explain to the king the motives and circumstances of what had happened to his sister.

The duke of Brunswic entered the territories of Holland on the fourth day from the communication

of Mr. de Thulemeyer. His march, as he had probably foreſeen, was rather a triumph than a campaign. Utrecht, the important city of Utrecht, the centre and ſoul of the democratical meaſures, Utrecht, that had had the glory of ſtopping the victorious arms of Louis the fourteenth in the midſt of all his inſolence and pride, was evacuated on the ſecond day from the beginning of the war. In conſequence of the fatal precaution of the ſtadtholder in ſeizing upon Wyk and the keys of the ſluices, it probably would not have been able to have held out many weeks. But thoſe weeks were of infinite conſequence to the republican cauſe. In that time Amſterdam, Gorcum, and the other great points of the province of Holland might have completely prepared for the reception of the enemy, and the opponents of the ſtadtholder would have recovered from the firſt panic of the invaſion: In that time France would have had leiſure to chooſe its party; France, that puſillanimouſly waited to ſee in what manner the friends of liberty would exert themſelves in their defence, but that at leaſt believed that its intention was finally to appear for their preſervation. The rhingrave of Salm, governor of Utrecht, either from treachery or cowardice, decided the queſtion. He did not wait even to ſee an enemy.

It ſeems probable, though we are unable accurately to determine, that it was immediately after the evacuation of Utrecht, that the ſtates of Holland declared the rhingrave of Salm field marſhal and commander in chief of the troops of the province. This was their laſt act of hoſtility. On the following day, which was the ſixteenth, the duke of Brunſwic entered into poſſeſſion of the province of Utrecht, and the deputies of Dort, Haerlem, Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Alkmaer and Gorcum retired from the Hague to the metropolis. On the ſeventeenth Gorcum, Dort, Schoonhoven and ſeveral other towns ſubmitted to the conqueror. The firſt of theſe places made ſome ſhow of reſiſtance; but, a few red-hot balls being thrown into the town and ſome houſes burned, they conſented to ſurrender. The deputies that were left at the Hague came to a vote for diſbanding the different corps of volunteers, and late on the following evening reſolved to reſtore the ſtadtholder to all his honours and prerogatives, and to invite him to repair to his uſual reſidence. The victory of the prerogative party was ſignaliſed here and in other places by the breaking of windows, the plundering of houſes, and a few other exceſſes. It was on the ſeventh day from the commencement of the invaſion, that the prince of Orange made his triumphal entry at the Hague, his chariot being drawn by the populace; the rhingrave of Salm, commander in chief, abſconded, and for ſome time was not to be heard of; and the only places remaining to the republican party were Woerden, Naarden, Delft, Amſterdam, and the remote towns of the petty diſtrict of North Holland.

The duke of Brunſwic advanced againſt Amſterdam on the twenty-ſecond, and ſeveral leſſer actions paſſed with various ſucceſs, but with a reſult extremely unfavourable to the patriots. The ſtrong hold of Nieuwerſluys was taken by ſtorm; the Pruſſians are ſaid to have been repulſed at Ouderkerke; and Weſop and Naarden ſurrendered, having received orders for that purpoſe from the

the provincial assembly at the Hague. On the twenty-sixth a conference was proposed on the part of the senate and burghers of Amsterdam, who offered to surrender upon condition of some mitigation in the terms of satisfaction to the princess of Orange, and particularly provided their magistrates might remain unchanged. As this question was said principally to interest the offended personage, the commissioners of Amsterdam were permitted to proceed to the Hague to confer with her. But the terms offered were jointly rejected by the duke of Brunswic and the princess of Orange.

This negociation occupied the space of four days, and on the first of October the duke of Brunswic renewed his attack. He advanced at the same time against the outposts of Muyden, Diemen, Duvendrecht, Ouderkerke, and the dyke of Haerlem. The environs of Amsterdam had been partially inundated, so that some of these places could not be approached without great danger, and the citizens, anxious to preserve this celebrated capital from tyranny and violence, appear to have defended themselves with considerable gallantry. The Prussians were repulsed in the majority of their attempts. Ouderkerke they said to have attacked three times, and three times to have miscarried. The dyke of Haerlem however, being assaulted on two different sides and by superior numbers, was abandoned almost without resistance. Amstelveen was carried in the afternoon; and Ouderkerke, being thus placed between two fires, was voluntarily evacuated.

In the evening of the same day a new armistice was demanded by the citizens, and granted by the duke of Brunswic. The only terms that could be obtained were, that the municipal militia should not be confounded in the fate of the volunteers, and that the town should not be obliged to receive a garrison. These terms were accepted by the senate on the third, but were demurred to by the burghers. In the meantime the senators elected in the course of the present year were deposed on the eighth, and, upon demand of the duke of Brunswic, one of the gates of Amsterdam was surrendered to him on the tenth. The next day five hundred Prussians entered the town to quell a tumult that appeared to be breaking out, but the duke engaged not to suffer any of his troops to pass the gate except in cases of emergency.

The princess of Orange, in whose character the politician was at least as conspicuous as any other feature, knew how to render the atonement for the affront, to which she had been exposed, subservient to the interests of her husband and family. The persons, who had been elected to any magistracy in the towns of Holland in the course of the present year, were in the first instance deposed as usurpers, and the persons in the place of whom they had been chosen restored to their functions. This measure however by no means included all those who were obnoxious to the stadtholder, and accordingly the princess of Orange signified to the states of Holland, that the satisfaction she should demand would confine itself to the deprivation of such persons as she should specify as being substantially the authors of the insult at Schoonhoven. Her list of proscription was delivered in on the sixth of October, and contained the names of seventeen persons, among which was van Ber-

kel, penſionary of Amſterdam, van Gyzelaer, penſionary of Dort, and ſeveral other of the moſt diſtinguiſhed characters of the republican party. In other inſtances perſons particularly marked as obnoxious were ſeized upon by the Pruſſian ſoldiery, tranſported into the Pruſſian dominions, and in ſome caſes it is ſaid treated with great indignity. The celebrated Capellen van der Merſch, a baron of the province of Overyſſel, appears to have died the martyr of his country. He was conducted a priſoner to Weſel in the duchy of Cleves; and, being at length permitted to return on account of his health, expired at Utrecht in the beginning of December. In the mean time refugees in great numbers poured into the territories of the Auſtrian Netherlands, where they found a ſpirit of diſcontent ſimilar to their own, and where they probably diſſeminated the independent and democratical principles that had occaſioned their exile.

Impartial ſpectators of this memorable event could not refrain from comparing, and the compariſon was as painful as it was unexpected, the juſtice and dignity of the cauſe of the republicans with the feebleneſs of their efforts to reſiſt an inſolent and arbitrary conqueror. The committee of the armed burghers of Utrecht came to a reſolution in the commencement of the civil war, importing their determination never to ſurrender their city, declaring that they would defend it till it was reduced to one undiſtinguiſhed ruin, rather than ſuffer the enemy to find any thing in it upon which to glut his cruel vengeance, and that, when they could no longer reſiſt, thoſe who ſurvived the carnage would, if reduced to that extremity, ſet fire to the four corners of the town before they abandoned their walls. In this declaration we acknowledge the genuine language of patriotiſm. Had the Batavian partiſans of freedom adhered to this glorious reſolution, they would at the very worſt have read a leſſon of magnanimity to mankind, the impreſſion of which in the preſent ſtate of the European conſtitution would have been indelible. But they would have done more than this. There is a ſolemn terror in the undaunted efforts of expiring virtue, from which the hireling miniſters of arbitrary power would have ſhrunk back confounded. We might have ſeen a ſecond Leonidas arreſting the millions of Xerxes at the paſs of Thermopylæ. Other powers, France in particular, if that had been neceſſary, could not long have witneſſed the generous ſtruggle in ſilence and inaction, and in ſuch a cauſe the ally, however embarraſſed in finances and inauſpicious in its period of exertion, would queſtionleſs have been victorious.

But the fate of Holland was different, and this proud and opulent republic now for the firſt time received law from two of its foreign neighbours at the point of the ſword. All hiſtory, both ancient and modern, unites to inform us, how deſirable is the ſtate of that people, who are indebted for a revolution in their government to the ſword of a rival. They ſink into abject ſubjection. All that ſenſe of independence, all that eagerneſs of adventure and boldneſs of ſpirit, that ſpring from conſcious ſovereignty, are loſt. They are degraded to the unnatural ſtation of a province, dependent for its immunities and its laws upon the mercy of a ſuperior. Hopeleſs, deſpondent, inactive and

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ſupine, they no longer look for improvement themſelves, or contribute to the ſubſtantial benefit of another. The revolution in Holland is ſcarcely leſs a misfortune to the ſtadtholderians than to their adverſaries. If either England or Pruſſia expect to derive advantage from their ſpontaneous interference for the deſtruction of liberty, it needs little ſagacity to foretel that they will infallibly be miſtaken. A province, ſubjected to a more fortunate neighbour, is not only itſelf in a moſt pitiable ſituation, but operates like a peſtilence, communicating its own diſtempers to the ſuperior ſtate, and like a dead body attached to a living one, undermining its vigour and fettering its exertions.

The revolution in Holland was accompanied with that ungenerous and unmanly triumph, which might be expected from the circumſtances which produced it. Various declarations of amneſty were publiſhed, but accompanied with ſuch numerous exceptions, as totally to defeat their purpoſe and belie their title. They accordingly ſeem not to have been very ſatisfactory to the predominant party, and were frequently ſuperſeded by new proclamations of a ſimilar tendency. In one of the lateſt, which made its appearance after the bitterneſs of contention and the animoſity of reſentment might be expected to have ſubſided, the perſons excepted from pardon were all magiſtrates who had excited the inhabitants to diſaffection, all perſons who had contributed to the clandeſtine introduction of foreign forces into the republic, all ſuch as had in the capacity of military officers borne arms againſt the ſtadtholder, all members of the pretended provincial aſſemblies who had ſuggeſted meaſures againſt him, all clergymen who had borne arms in the republican cauſe, and all perſons who ſhould appear to have been guilty of acts of violence. To whom could ſuch an amneſty have been productive of benefit? The vengeance of the houſe of Orange does not indeed appear to have been in many inſtances ſanguinary and ferocious. But they were liberal of deprivation, of corporal puniſhments and impriſonment. They drove numbers to depart into voluntary baniſhment rather than depend upon the arbitrary mercy of their opponents, and they held out threats in terrorem to deter every one from thinking or reaſoning in favour of liberty, under penalty of an inquiſition into his paſt life, and a proſecution under the exceptions of the amneſty. Among other inſtances of the ſpirit by which the victorious party was guided, we may mention the trial pro formâ of the deceaſed Capellen van der Merſch, and the ſentence by which he was declared to have forfeited his life to the laws of his country.

At the particular requeſt of the princeſs of Orange the king of Pruſſia conſented to permit ſome thouſands of his troops to take up their winter quarters in Holland, and they did not wholly evacuate that country till May 1788. In the mean time treaties of defenſive alliance were negociated between Holland and Great Britain and Holland and Pruſſia. Theſe meaſures were completed by a political confederacy between Great Britain and Pruſſia, which received its ultimate ſanction on the thirteenth of Auguſt 1788.

CHAP. IV.

Turkiſh Expedition againſt Egypt. Journey of the Empreſs of Ruſſia to Cherſon. Met by the King of Poland and the Emperor. Turks declare War againſt her. Attack of Kinburn. Hoſtilities of the Emperor. Engagements in the Euxine. Proceedings of the King of Sweden. Battle of Hoogland. Army declares againſt the War. Daniſh Invaſion. Armiſtice. Manœuvres of the Grand Viſier. Surrender of Choczim. Surrender of Oczakow.

WE are arrived at a period in our foreign hiſtory when the northern and the weſtern diviſions of Europe were once more deſtined to fill the moſt conſiderable ſcene in the political drama. Catherine, empreſs of Ruſſia, who for various reaſons deſerves to be ſtyled the Semiramis of the north, aſcended the throne in the year 1762; and it is not to be ſuppoſed that an adminiſtration of twenty-five years had failed to render her principles and character ſubjects of ſufficient notoriety. If the public patronage of literature and talents, if an aſſiduous attention to the fine arts, if the love of ſplendour and the ambition of rendering her capital the centre of all that elegant leiſure has been accuſtomed to admire, can give a title to immortality, the claims of the czarina are indiſputable. But theſe are the bounds of her pretenſions. She continually indeed ſends forth miſſions of her younger ſubjects to acquire knowledge in foreign realms; but ſhe does not ſeek to annihilate that ſlavery and vaſſalage, with the exiſtence of which knowledge and improvement are incompatible. She ſeeks to extend the commerce of her ſubjects to diſtant climates; but ſhe takes no effectual ſteps to diſſeminate that ſpirit of manufacture and induſtry, without which commerce is an unſubſtantial phantom. She is ſeized with the frenſy of conqueſt; while her actual dominions, conſiderably more extenſive than the empire of ancient Rome, afford ſcope for the activity of the wiſeſt politician. She is ever employed in warlike preparations or in war; though her territories, without this preternatural exhauſture, are little better than an uninhabited deſert. She ſurveys with ſcientific accuracy the extremities of her empire; while its centre and its heart are totally neglected. The activity of her deſigns are exhauſted in the intrigues of foreign courts. France has long been accuſed of invading the tranquillity of her neighbours by the arts of corruption. But France, in all the wantonneſs of civilization and wealth, was never more indefatigable in this reſpect, than the Tartarian ſovereign of the ſavages of Muſcovy.

Scarcely was ſhe ſeated on the throne, before ſhe intruded by violence a prince on the Courlanders, and reduced that important principality to the dependence of a province. She next gave a monarch, and a ſyſtem of government, or rather of anarchy to Poland. Not contented with this, ſhe engendered the tyrannical and unprincipled deſign of diſmembering the provinces of Poland. She ſought, and frequently

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with ſucceſs, to dictate through the medium of intrigue to the cabinets of Stockholm and Copenhagen. But her principal uſurpations were on the falling empire of the Turks. By the war of 1768 ſhe acquired the provinces of Catharinoſlaw, the ſite of Cherſon, and the navigation of the Black Sea. By an uninterrupted ſeries of arbitrary proceedings and cabal, ſhe ſubjugated the ineſtimable and beautiful peninſula of Crim Tartary, acquired various diſtricts in the province of Circaſſia, and rendered the princes of Georgia her feudataries and vaſſals. Already nothing in the north and the eaſt could reſiſt her deſpotic ſway; and to complete her deſigns, ſhe was enabled to gain over the reſtleſs and capricious mind of the emperor to her ſide, and to negotiate with him a ſort of indefinite project for the conqueſt of Conſtantinople and the partition of Greece.

While theſe projects were forming by the empreſs of Ruſſia, the court of the grand ſignior ſeemed to diſplay nothing but ſymptoms of imbecility and decay. The ſubordinate princes of Tripoli, Algiers and Tunis could by no means be perſuaded to yield to the dictates of Conſtantinople reſpecting their conduct towards the powers of Europe, and were hardly induced to pay their annual tribute to the Ottoman Porte. The pacha of Scutari, a diſtrict upon the borders of Venetian Dalmatia, had wantonly entered in a hoſtile manner upon the territories of the republic, and his puniſhment was demanded by their ambaſſador. But the Porte, ſo far from being able to deprive him of his government, found itſelf expoſed to his inroads and devaſtations, and was engaged with him in a fruitleſs conteſt, ſometimes by undeciſive battles, and ſometimes by negociations in which he appeared to dictate to the ſupreme government, for more than two years. In other parts of the empire, a ſort of enthuſiaſtical and prophetic leaders made their appearance, aſſerted a kind of political independence, and committed every ſpecies of exceſs with impunity. The province of Egypt, which had given perpetual uneaſineſs to the court of Conſtantinople, now threatened to ſhake off the yoke and engroſs a ſovereignty to which for many centuries it had been a ſtranger.

It was in this alarming criſis that a bold and daring genius aroſe, who promiſed to arreſt the falling greatneſs of the Ottomans. Haſſan Ali is ſaid to have been a native of Algiers, and, being obliged for ſome reaſons to fly from that ſubordinate principality, he entered into the immediate ſervice of the grand ſignior. He attached himſelf principally to the maritime profeſſion, and ſerved with diſtinction in the laſt war againſt the Ruſſians. It has been ſuppoſed, that, if his advice had been followed, the enemy would have been deprived of ſome of the moſt conſiderable advantages they gained in the principal naval action of that war. He had gradually riſen by his reputation and his merits through ſeveral inferior offices to the ſtation of capitan pacha or high admiral of the Turkiſh dominions. At this time he was more than ſeventy years of age; and, unſubdued by the natural infirmities of ſo advanced a period, he breathed nothing but military ardour, together with hatred and vengeance of the uſurpations of Ruſſia. As a firſt ſtep to the accompliſhment of his favourite deſign, he endeavoured to ſeize upon all the offices of government, and to engroſs the avenues to the

the ear of the ſovereign. Yſſouf Pacha, who was raiſed to the office of grand viſier in January 1786, had originally ſerved Haſſan Ali in the capacity of a ſlave, and in the preceding year had been nominated by his influence to the government of the Morea. Maurojeni, his dragoman or ſteward, was about the ſame time elevated to the ſituation of hoſpodar of Walachia; and moſt of the great offices of ſtate were filled with his dependents and creatures.

Having thus ſecured the protection and ſupport of the ſovereign during the period of his abſence, he determined in the next place to undertake the conqueſt and ſubjugation of Egypt, truſting by this meaſure at once to augment the proſperity and reſources of the Porte, and ſo to eſtabliſh his own reputation as to enable him to act with vigour and the confidence of the public in his meditated hoſtilities againſt Ruſſia. He ſailed from Conſtantinople in May 1786; and having made the cuſtomary annual circuit to collect by the immediate terror of the Turkiſh arms the tribute of the dependent provinces, he arrived at Alexandria in the month of July.

Haſſan Ali landed with an army of twenty-five thouſand men, which he expected to augment with recruits levied in the province. He immediately marched from Alexandria to Roſetta. The Lower Egypt, or that part of the country which borders upon the Levant, was at this time divided between two beys, Murat and Ibrahim, who united their intereſts, both againſt the court of Conſtantinople, and in the wars they are lately ſaid to have carried on againſt the beys of the Upper, or more diſtant diviſion. At this time they had ſtationed their forces between Roſetta and Cairo. Here they were encountered by the intrepid Haſſan, who is ſtated to have made upon them three vigorous attacks in one day, and who concluded with gaining an entire victory. This event put him in poſſeſſion of the capital, where among other priſoners he found the wife of Ibrahim and one of his children, whom he treated with great humanity, and ſent off the young prince to be educated in a manner ſuitable to his rank at Conſtantinople.

Murat and Ibrahim both of them eſcaped from the battle, though Haſſan had had the precaution to order a detachment of his forces to take a circuitous march, and place themſelves in the rear of the enemy to intercept their flight. They retreated to Girge, the capital of Upper Egypt, which ſtands nearly upon the ſite of the ancient Thebes, the city of an hundred gates, ſo much celebrated by the Grecian poets and hiſtorians. The princes of this country received them with hoſpitality, conſidering themſelves as engaged in a common cauſe with them againſt the uſurpations of the Porte. Haſſan in the mean time diſpatched a numerous detachment to purſue them, who penetrated with ſucceſs almoſt as far as Girge, where they were attacked by a much larger army of Egyptians on the twenty-ſixth of October, and obliged to retreat in conſiderable diſorder. Irritated at this miſcarriage he proceeded with all the forces he could collect; and not being able to induce the enemy to meet him in the field, he at length reſolved on the ſixteenth of February 1787 to ſtorm them in their camp. Here he was twice repulſed, but returned a third time to the attack; and after an obſtinate

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engagement of six hours in duration, at length compelled them to seek their safety in flight.

But, notwithstanding these brilliant successes, the Turkish commander found himself unable totally to subdue the resistance of his adversaries; and, after some farther conflicts, attended, as it should seem, with various success, he thought proper to listen to terms of accommodation. Murat and Ibrahim consented to restrain themselves within the boundaries of certain districts in the Upper Egypt, and gave hostages to insure the province of Cairo against their irruptions. This adjustment appears to have taken place in July 1787, and Hassan, having made a farther residence of three months in that country, quitted it in October, bringing with him the hostages of its princes and a contribution in money to the amount of 6,000,000 *l.* sterling, beside having secured to the Porte an annual revenue, which is computed to fall little short of 4,000,000 *l.*

The whole period from the convention of January 1784, by which the Turks guaranteed to the Russians the entire possession of the Crimea, is to be considered less as a period of peace than a suspension of arms, in which both parties incessantly employed themselves with more or less assiduity in warlike preparations, and constantly meditated the commencement of hostilities. The czarina was assiduous in endeavouring to secure to herself an active alliance against the moment of contest. The emperor in particular seems to have entered into the most solemn engagements, to co-operate with her in an attempt to reduce the dominions of the grand signior; and, if that prince should forestal the Russians in commencing hostilities, by no means to suffer a circumstance of that nature to defeat the project they had formed of a united attack. Catherine was also anxious to engage the republic of Venice in this league; and, influenced by views of this sort, prevailed upon the emperor to desist from a projected compulsory exchange of territory which he had formed against the republic. It seems probable that the Venetians displayed no considerable reluctance to enter into the views of the imperial courts, though the expectations they allowed themselves to excite were not in the sequel productive of any important consequences.

Neither Venice nor the emperor were wanting in motives, or at least in pretexts of controversy with the Porte. We have already mentioned the hostilities committed by the pacha of Scutari upon the Venetian Dalmatia in 1785; and, though the resident from that republic at the court of Constantinople repeatedly demanded a reparation for the injuries committed, and the punishment of the aggressor, the divan, partly from a disposition at once haughty and supine, partly from the intrigues of the pacha, who had formerly lived in habits of considerable friendship both with Hassan Ali and the new grand visier, and partly from the imbecility and impotence of the supreme authority, never yielded any effectual hearing to his remonstrances. The Venetians had also claimed the interference of the Ottoman Porte to adjust their differences with the regency of Tunis, a matter to which the grand signior seems to have been still less competent than to the punishment of the pacha of Scutari. They therefore deemed themselves obliged to vindicate their own rights; and their fleet under chevalier Emo in the years 1785 and 1786 bombarded the set-

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tlements of Sfax, Biſerta and Tunis.

At the moment that the czarina had aſſerted her dominion over the peninſula of Taurica, the emperor advanced his claims to a certain extenſion of territory on the ſide of Hungary, claims which from the known caprice and inſtability of his character had been ſuffered to paſs without adjuſtment at the favourable moment, and which had ſince been uniformly evaded by the Turks. The diſtricts that were demanded appear too trivial to ſpectators placed at ſuch a diſtance as we are, to be able to excite any diſtinct idea or ſenſation in the mind; but, ſuch as they are, they have been ſpecified in a preceding volume of our regiſter. One circumſtance that attended them ſeems entitled to notice. Certain articles were publiſhed at Vienna in the autumn of 1785, purporting to be the propoſitions of the Turks, and accompanied with the anſwer of the emperor; and great doubts were afterwards formed whether the Turks had ever made the conciliatory offers which theſe articles contained.

The government of Conſtantinople conſtantly exhibited all the ſymptoms of a weak, imbecil and diſjointed adminiſtration, their moſt timid ſtateſmen not always abſtaining from meaſures of irritation, and their boldeſt politicians frequently betraying the marks of fear and irreſolution. The Ruſſian knew well how to take advantage of this circumſtance. She had always matters of complaint againſt the Porte, which to a ſuperficial obſerver aſſumed a plauſible appearance; and theſe complaints were in her hands productive of ſo many reiterated triumphs. She had notoriouſly over-reached the Ottoman adminiſtration in the commercial treaty of 1783; and the conſuls ſhe placed in the different cities of Turkey under the ſanction of this treaty, frequently had not even the pretence of commerce, but were ſpies to diſcover the weakneſs and diſſentions of the inhabitants, or agents to excite them to diſaffection and hoſtility againſt the government under which they lived. Of conſequence the Turks demanded but in vain the recal of ſome of theſe, and refuſed to admit others into places where by the letter of the treaty they were entitled to reſide. The Ruſſians had equally violated the ſubſiſting treaties by admitting Maurocordato the depoſed hoſpodar of Moldavia to take refuge in their dominions.

Towards the latter part of the year 1786 the Turks ſeem to have adopted a regular ſyſtem of indirect hoſtility againſt Ruſſia. Ever ſince the acquiſition of Crimea and the Cuban, the Ruſſians in the latter of theſe provinces were engaged in a conſtant ſeries of military operations. They ſucceeded either by terror or cabal in inducing the two princes of Georgia, the czar of Teflis and the czar of Imiretta, to recognize the court of Peterſburgh as their lawful ſuperior. They were not equally ſucceſsful in reſtraining the incurſions of the Leſghis, or Tartar inhabitants of Circaſſia. Theſe Tartars were, at leaſt in the ſequel, inſtigated and ſupported in an indirect manner by the court of Conſtantinople; and their operations were ſo far ſucceſsful, that Heraclius, czar of Teflis, found himſelf obliged to have recourſe to the power that could yield him the moſt effectual protection; and ſhaking off the allegiance of Ruſſia, he declared himſelf the vaſſal of the Porte in a period of about

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two years from the time in which he had ſubmitted to the northern rival of that power. About the ſame time Sahim Gherai, late khan of the Crimea, fled from the auſpices of his imperial protectreſs into the Turkiſh dominions, and by order of the grand ſignior took up his reſidence in Rhodes, where twelve months after he was beheaded.

The year 1787 opened with the extraordinary ſpectacle of the journey of the empreſs of Ruſſia from Peterſburgh to Cherſon, where it ſeems to have been her original intention to have been crowned with all poſſible magnificence, and under the ſplendid titles of empreſs of the Eaſt, libérator of Greece, and reviver of the ſeries of Roman emperors, who formerly ſwayed the ſceptre over that diviſion of the globe. This journey had been for a conſiderable time in contemplation, and was looked upon with horror by the Turks, as the period that would ſet up a new pretender to their throne, and inflict a more public and atrocious inſult upon their character than they had ever endured from any other quarter. The empreſs departed from Peterſburgh on the ſixteenth of January, and arrived at Kiow, the moſt weſterly point of the hereditary poſſeſſions of Ruſſia on the ninth of the following month. It is ſufficiently ſingular that the czarina had originally intended to take with her her two grand-children, ſons of the grand duke of Ruſſia, the eldeſt of whom was only nine years of age; a meaſure that was doubtleſs intended as a precaution againſt the inſtability of her ſubjects, and a ſecurity for her ſafe return to the capital of the empire. This idea was at length, but with reluctance, given up; but the circumſtance of her taking with her, as ſhe did in this gaudy proceſſion, a numerous army of the choiceſt part of the Ruſſian forces, probably originated in a ſimilar motive; and it did not at all tend to ſoothe the anxious fears and vigilant jealouſy of the court of Conſtantinople.

Catherine reſided for a period of near three months in the city of Kiow; and this was owing partly to the badneſs of the roads and the inclemency of the ſeaſon; partly it may be to certain hoſtile ſymptoms, which were at this time betrayed by the Porte, and which, if they had immediately proceeded to all their conſequences, would have entirely put a ſtop to the imperial progreſs; and partly to certain delays of the king of Poland and the emperor, the former of whom was expected to meet the czarina at Kiow and the latter at Cherſon. The interview with Staniſlaus took place on the ſixth of May at Kaniew, a Poliſh town upon the Dnieper, that river having been choſen by Catherine to convey her and her train. The king of Poland was invited to come on board the veſſel of the empreſs, and after one day ſpent in mutual conference that princeſs proceeded on the day following for Cherſon.

The ſplendour of the route of the czarina ſurpaſſes whatever the imagination would ſpontaneouſly ſuggeſt. She was eſcorted by an army. Pioneers preceded her march, whoſe buſineſs it was to render the road as even and pleaſant as it could poſſibly be made. At the end of each day's journey ſhe found a temporary palace erected for her reception, together with all the accommodations and luxuries that Peterſburgh could have afforded. In the liſt of her followers were the ambaſſadors of London, Verſailles and Vienna; and her own

ambaſſador as well as the envoy of the emperor to the court of Conſtantinople were appointed to meet her at Cherſon. She had directed the former, Mr. de Bulhakow, to ſound in a diſtant manner the Ottoman Porte reſpecting the ſending an officer to compliment her upon her arrival, and thus to witneſs and ſanction as it were the degradation of the Turks; but the propoſal was rejected with indignation. We have ſeen the king of Poland meet her in her journey; and the emperor, not contented with ſwelling her triumph at Cherſon, appeared in that capital eight days before her, and proceeded to a conſiderable diſtance up the Dnieper to intercept her progreſs. The coronation, for reaſons we are unable to aſſign, was laid aſide; but the empreſs was received under triumphal arches at Kiow; and upon her arrival at Cherſon, having thought proper to extend the walls to take in a greater ſpace than they had yet contained, ſhe inſcribed over one of the gates of the city, "Through this gate lies the road to Byzantium." The imperial viſitants entered the city on the twenty-third of May; and, having remained five days, proceeded to make a tour through the principal places of the peninſula, which was completed in ſomewhat leſs than a fortnight. The czarina returned to Peterſburgh by the way of Moſcow.

Previouſly to the departure of Mr. de Bulhakow upon his journey to meet the empreſs at Cherſon, he preſented by her order certain complaints to the Porte, which ſhe wiſhed to ſee immediately remedied. She demanded that the Turks ſhould explicitly acknowledge the czar of Teflis to be the rightful vaſſal of Ruſſia, that they ſhould undertake to oblige the Leſghis Tartars to ceaſe from their hoſtilities, that the diſputes reſpecting the ſalt-pits of Kinburn ſhould be finally adjuſted, that a Ruſſian conſul ſhould be admitted at Varna the chief port of the province of Bulgaria, that a more uniform and leſs vexatious government ſhould be maintained in the Grecian principalities of Moldavia and Walachia, and that the Turks ſhould come to an explanation with the empreſs reſpecting their military preparations.

In the preſent temper of the court of Conſtantinople it was not likely that their anſwer to theſe demands ſhould be very conciliatory. They aſſerted that the czar of Teflis was, and by the treaty of Cainargi in 1774 had been recognized to be the vaſſal of the Porte, that the Leſghis Tartars were entirely out of the juriſdiction of the grand ſignior, that the queſtion of the ſalt-pits was trivial in its own nature and might beſt be adjuſted by the intervention of certain inferior officers of government, that a Ruſſian conſul at Varna would be abſolutely uſeleſs, and that the introduction of one had been prevented only by the obſtinate reſiſtance of the inhabitants, that the welfare of the principalities was a queſtion in which the Porte was chiefly intereſted, and reſpecting which of conſequence her exertions would be unfeignedly ſincere, and that it was but natural that the Turks ſhould put themſelves in the ſame poſture of defence which was aſſumed by their neighbours.

To theſe reaſonings reſpecting the demands of Ruſſia the Turks are ſaid to have added certain requiſitions of their own. They called for an explanation reſpecting the intrigues alledged to have been formed

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by the Ruſſian conſul at Alexandria with the rebel beys of that country, reſpecting the paſſports granted by the Ruſſian conſuls to certain emigrants of Moldavia and Walachia, the aſylum extended to the ex-governor Maurocordato, and the real views of the empreſs in her progreſs to Crimea. Bulhakow undertook to charge himſelf with their repreſentations and to communicate to them the anſwer of his ſovereign.

We have already remarked that the Turks appear to have intended at no very diſtant period to tempt the fortune of war for the purpoſe of ſuſpending the incroachments of Ruſſia. Their ultimate declaration however ſeems to have been unexpectedly precipitated. They had probably at leaſt deſigned to wait for the return of the capitan pacha from his ſucceſsful expedition in Egypt. At the preſent moment they could not boaſt of a ſingle ally in any part of the world; and the recent interview and cordiality of the emperor and the czarina were peculiarly unfavourable to their purpoſes. The impolicy and raſhneſs of their conduct was at this time through all Europe believed to originate in the influence of the Engliſh ambaſſador; and the period, being that in which England and Pruſſia had juſt reſolved to annihilate by force of arms the French party in Holland, is exceedingly favourable to this ſuppoſition. Meanwhile the court of London was aſſiduous and explicit in contradicting this rumour. It muſt remain with the reader to decide upon the degree of credit he will afford to this diſavowal. Undoubtedly there are men, whom the character and office of a miniſter cannot corrupt, and who know that inſincerity and falſehood are neither themſelves virtue, nor can lead to that ſolid and genuine proſperity which is the reward of virtue. But undoubtedly alſo ſuch ſentiments and ſuch a diſcernment are more rare than could be deſired. We muſt leave it to the ultimate verdict of a more diſtant hiſtorian to decide upon the particular inſtances.

Scarcely had the czarina reviſited her capital of Peterſburgh before ſhe was followed by the Turkiſh declaration of hoſtilities. Conferences were held by the Ottoman adminiſtration with Mr. de Bulhakow on the twenty-ſixth and thirtieth of July, which promiſed no very auſpicious concluſion. On the ſixteenth of Auguſt he was unexpectedly ſummoned to an audience of the grand ſignior. Certain propoſitions were immediately ſtated to him, reſpecting the reſtoration of the Crimea and the annihilation of the commercial treaty, which he was required to ſign, as the only means for the preſervation of peace. Mr. de Bulhakow demanded time to communicate them to his court, but this was denied him. Upon his ultimate refuſal he was formally declared an enemy of the empire, and arreſted priſoner of war. He was conveyed with ſufficient civility to the caſtle of the Seven Towers, and the Ruſſian ſhips in the harbour of Conſtantinople put under an embargo. The ambaſſadors of Vienna and Verſailles exerted their utmoſt efforts to produce a reconciliation, but in vain. The grand viſier is ſaid to have been in the beginning almoſt the ſingle advocate for war, but in the ſequel to have brought over to his party the majority of the divan. One of the firſt proceedings of the grand ſignior in conſequence of the ſyſtem adopted,

adopted, was to appoint him commander in chief with an unlimited power for the levying and employment of the armies of the ſtate.

The Turkiſh manifeſto againſt the Ruſſians is dated on the twentieth of Auguſt, and is an uncommonly feeble and ſpiritleſs compoſition. Few nations have ever had more acumulated ſubjects of complaint againſt another, and yet it is difficult to collect from this paper which party was the real aggreſſor, and it is certain that none of the cauſes it alledges are a ſufficient ground for hoſtility. They declared the ſolicitude with which they had always adhered to the treaty of Cainargi, while the Ruſſians had violated its moſt fundamental article by the invaſion of the Crimea. In conſequence of that invaſion new ſtipulations had been formed, and it was agreed that all enmity and hatred between the two parties ſhould be extinguiſhed. The court of Ruſſia however had ſince that time ſent troops into Georgia, and ſeduced the khan of Teflis from his allegiance. They had interrupted the inhabitants of Oczakow in their uſe of the ſalt-pits of Kinburn. They had granted an aſylum to the hoſpodar of Moldavia. They had ſeduced the inhabitants of Moldavia, Walachia and the Archipelago to ſettle in Ruſſia; and, while the Turks granted on their part an unreſtrained freedom of commerce, they were obliged to pay duties in Ruſſia that doubled or tripled the duties paid by other nations. The manifeſto farther alledged, that Mr. de Bulhakow had in the beginning of the preſent year threatened them with a Ruſſian army of ſixty or ſeventy thouſand men under prince Potemkin, if they did not paſs an act calculated to ſatisfy the czarina reſpecting the ſubject of her complaints; and this threat was ſurely a ſufficient provocation to war. The actual march of Potemkin was preciſely ſimilar to the incidents that had preceded the invaſion of Crimea. Under theſe circumſtances they conceived it neceſſary that the peninſula ſhould once more be veſted in the grand ſignior, perſuaded that the capture of this country had been the ſource of every ſubſequent diſorder, and that ſecurity and repoſe could never be recovered by any other means than its reſtoration.

The manifeſto of the Turks did not long remain unanſwered, and the memorials publiſhed by the czarina are fraught with the indignation of injured innocence. She expatiates on the clemency diſplayed by her in the peace of Cainargi, when ſhe had relaxed greatly from the claims ſhe might have aſſerted and the pretentions to which her victories entitled her, that ſhe might lay the foundation of a durable tranquillity. But the Porte had diſplayed in every part of its conduct from that time the moſt notorious want of faith, and a perfect contempt for all its obligations. The Tartars of the Crimea had depoſed their legitimate ſovereign at the inſtigation of the Turks and under the immediate countenance of a fleet commanded by the capitan pacha. His reſtoration had been effected by the convention of 1779; but the Porte ſtill continued its intrigues in the peninſula, and the czarina had found it neceſſary to take the country into her own hands. The object of her tranſactions in 1783, the ſeizure of the Crimea and the treaty of commerce, had been no other than to conſolidate peace between the two powers. She was actuated by no

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desire to enlarge the limits of an empire already sufficiently extensive. She had not proposed the indemnifying herself for the expences she had incurred; a purpose which the Crimea was not calculated to answer. Her object had been to civilize the inhabitants, to put an end to the disorders and depredations that subsisted among them, and thus by establishing a firm and tranquil barrier to secure the future harmony of Russia and the Porte. But the Turkish administration, which had immediately succeeded after the peace of the Crimea, had adopted principles different from their predecessors, had advanced groundless pretensions respecting the salt-works of Kinburn; had opposed the admission of Russian consuls into some parts of the Turkish dominions; and finally, perceiving that these objects were not of sufficient magnitude to bring on a rupture, had instigated the Lesghis and the Cuban Tartars to disturb the dominions of the prince of Teflis, and to make inroads upon the territories of Russia. The empress however, faithful to her system of moderation, had contented herself with reclaiming the stipulations of treaties; but her remonstrances had been ineffectual, they had been answered with a harshness and a haughtiness, little suited to the transactions of sovereign powers. For herself she had constantly communicated her affairs in this respect to the emperor; she had chearfully accepted the mediation of the king of France; and these monarchs were convinced of the justice and equity of her pretensions. The love of peace had given vigour to her hopes; she had imagined that the Porte would not always have recourse to falshood and artifice, but that the sanctity of oaths, upon which all nations found their solemn treaties, would at length have excited in the Porte an inclination to fulfil its engagements.

The empress had no sooner published her resolutions than she began to muster two great armies, one in the Ukraine under field marshal count Romanzow, who had been the Russian commander in chief in the preceding war, and the other, a foundation for which already existed in the neighbourhood of Cherson, under prince Potemkin, a nobleman, who both by his influence in the state and his favour with the sovereign appears to be the first subject of the Russian empire; and upon whom the czarina, in gratitude for his services in that part of the world, had in her late progress bestowed the appellation of Tauritskoi or Tauricanus. On the part of the Turks their first hostile measure consisted in calling together the princes of the house of Gherai, and causing them to elect a new khan of the Crimea. It is said to have been at their requisition that the late khan was put to death.

Their martial proceedings were not altogether so prompt or so formidable as their voluntary provocation of hostilities might have led us to expect. The Turkish fleet appeared before Kinburn, a Russian fortress at the entrance of the Black Sea and opposite to the city of Oczakow, on the twenty-fourth of September. They immediately began to throw their cannon balls and shells into the place, and their fire was returned from the fort. During the bombardment one of their ships took fire and was blown into the air. In the night of the twenty-fifth and twenty-sixth the Turks landed a body of forces on the peninsula upon which Kinburn is built,

but were each time obliged to retire. A part of the Ruſſian fleet now appeared in ſight, and after a ſharp engagement obliged the Turks to withdraw to Oczakow.

A more ſerious attack was meditated on the twelfth of October. The Turks appeared with a body of five thouſand men, and, having landed, prepared to make a regular approach againſt the fortreſs. Their exertions upon this occaſion were vigorous and obſtinate; but they were at length driven back to their retrenchments, and ſucceſſively expelled from ten different lodgments which they had made. The ſupport they received from the fire of their ſhips was conſiderable; the Ruſſians were nearly put to flight, and, though ultimately victorious, it was not without having their two principal commanders, general Suwarow and general Reck, dangerouſly wounded. The fleet of the empreſs proceeded after this action to attempt the bombardment of Oczakow, but with no conſiderable effect. Chevalier Lombard, a knight of Malta in the ſervice of the czarina, who diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the preceding naval conteſts by an intrepidity approaching to fool-hardineſs, periſhed upon this occaſion with all his crew. The Ruſſians had beſides a ſixty-four gun ſhip taken by the enemy, and three frigates that periſhed by different accidents. The Turkiſh fleet ſoon after returned into the harbour of Conſtantinople, and the admiral, who had been ſent out with an expreſs order at all events to reduce the garriſon of Kinburn, was ſtrangled by command of the grand ſignior. At the ſame time a ſort of partiſan war was carried on with various ſucceſs in the Cuban and Georgia. The capitan pacha arrived from his ſucceſsful expedition into Egypt on the ſecond of November.

But the queſtion upon which the ſucceſs of the war appeared at this time principally to depend related to the conduct which would be held by the emperor of Germany. The czarina in the war of 1768 had alone appeared a ſufficiently formidable adverſary of the Ottoman power; but it could not be a trivial conſideration for theſe barbarous and inexperienced armies to obtain the co-operation and ſupport of a regular force of two hundred thouſand men, long diſciplined in arms, and compoſed of the natives of Germany, who had been ſuppoſed to a proverb the beſt ſoldiers in the world. It had by many been imagined that there was nothing the Turks could produce that could in any degree reſiſt the union of the imperial powers, and they ſaw in idea the reduction of Conſtantinople as the iſſue of a ſingle campaign. The emperor however by the capriciouſneſs of his character kept the ſpirit of curioſity in ſuſpenſe. The nature of his engagements with Ruſſia was univerſally ſuſpected, but it was alſo univerſally ſuſpected that a dependence upon his fidelity to thoſe engagements would prove extremely precarious. Had France endeavoured to deter him by her threats, or had the new alliance of England and Pruſſia peremptorily reſiſted his projects, he would no doubt have ſhrunk from the uncertain and dangerous conſequences to be apprehended from his undertaking. But France was at this moment diſarmed by her internal contentions, and the Germanic allies were too buſy in ſecuring their imaginary advantages in Holland,

land, to be at leiſure to turn their attention with vigour and effect to ſo diſtant a ſcene.

If indeed the character of the emperor would have admitted of the common rules of calculation and conjecture, his deſigns would have been ſufficiently manifeſt from the outſet. Field marſhal count Laſcy had been declared commander in chief of the army in Hungary on the ſame day that the Turks had commenced the attack upon Kinburn; and the government was perpetually employed in marching troops and erecting magazines on the frontiers of the Auſtrian dominions. The Turks however ſtill hoped that they ſhould be able to ward off the blow on this ſide, and they exerted every effort to maintain harmony and a good underſtanding with the emperor. They accordingly received with moderation and temper the anſwer of Joſeph to the communication of the manifeſto againſt the Ruſſians, in which he expreſsly mentioned the obligation impoſed on him by treaty to aſſiſt the czarina with a reinforcement of eighty thouſand men. He added, that, if the Porte ſhould conſtrue this ſuccour into an avowal of hoſtility, he was prepared for every event; but that it would depend upon themſelves whether he ſhould be regarded as any thing more than an auxiliary, he being perfectly willing to maintain the ſubſiſting amity upon their mutual frontiers.

But the emperor did not long reſtrain himſelf within theſe limits. On the ſecond of December an attempt was made to take by ſurpriſe the important fortreſs of Belgrade, the garriſon of which was ſaid to conſiſt only of four thouſand men reinforced by fifteen thouſand citizens capable of bearing arms. Four regiments of infantry and three battalions of grenadiers croſſed the Save during the preceding night; but a body of equal force, which was to have croſſed the Danube and appear before the town on the other ſide, having through ſome accident miſcarried, the deſign proved abortive. The Auſtrians had brought with them no heavy artillery, and the Turks might greatly have annoyed them in their retreat. But, the imperial commander having apologized for his ſudden appearance, and declared that it was ſolely owing to a report that the Turks meditated an attack upon Semlin, the Auſtrian town on the other ſide the Save, he was ſuffered to retire unmoleſted. The garriſon of Belgrade was ſoon after reinforced ſo as to have nothing to apprehend from a ſimilar attempt; and thus the emperor had the ſatisfaction of diſplaying the perfidiouſneſs of his principles, without reaping any of the advantages he had expected to derive from it.

The imperial declaration of war was at length communicated to the Turkiſh adminiſtration and to the different courts of Europe on the ninth of February 1788. Its allegations did not relate to any ſpecies of injury ſuſtained by the emperor from the court of Conſtantinople, but merely to the obſtinate reſiſtance of the latter to all terms of mediation or accommodation with the court of Ruſſia. On the ſame day commenced the hoſtilities of the Auſtrian forces. Four armies had been formed on the frontiers of th Turkiſh dominions, in Auſtrian Poland under the command of the prince of Saxe Cobourg, in Tranſylvania under general Fabris, and in Croatia under prince Charles of Lichtenſtein, governor of Vienna. The central force

was ſtationed near Semlin at the confluence of the Danube and the Save, and the command had been conferred upon field marſhal count Laſcy. Neither of theſe two laſt generals was preſent with their reſpective armies at the opening of the campaign. The emperor profeſſed in theſe early proceedings not to engage in any arduous undertaking, but by a war of poſts to gain an advantageous ſite for his military operations, and to carry the war into the country of the enemy. Dreſſnic on the Corona was ſtormed by the Croatian forces on the tenth. An inferior fortreſs near the ſame ſpot was ſummoned; and the Turks, pretending as it is ſaid to parley and afterwards ſuddenly firing upon the Auſtrians, were forced by the enemy, and every man put to death. Dubicza, a ſtation of much greater moment, was repeatedly attacked, but defended by the Turks with exemplary courage; and, though nearly reduced to a pile of ruins, ſucceſſfully reſiſted the utmoſt efforts of the imperialiſts. Their attempts in other places were attended with inferior ſucceſs. They ſuſtained conſiderable damage on the ſide of Belgrade; and prince de Cobourg, having croſſed the Pruth, and endeavoured to ſtation a body of forces ſo as to intercept any reinforcements that might be attempted to be thrown into Choczim, ſuffered a deciſive check, and is ſaid to have had one of his regiments nearly cut to pieces. The ſituation of his army remained for a conſiderable time a ſubject of much apprehenſion. Meanwhile the Auſtrians ſuffered greatly from the premature opening of their campaign, and the inclemency of the ſeaſon occaſioned an alarming mortality both among their horſes and men.

The Porte is ſaid to have been leſs diſconcerted than they were expected to have been by the communication of the imperial declaration; and they not only permitted the Auſtrian envoy to depart without moleſtation, but at the ſame time liberated Mr. de Bulhakow from his captivity in the Seven Towers. In their ſubſequent declaration of war they enumerated more fully than they had before done their cauſes of complaint againſt the court of Peterſburgh; and remonſtrated with conſiderable emphaſis againſt the conduct of the Auſtrians in frontleſsly violating a peace of fifty years continuance, without having the pretence of a ſingle injury to aſſign. They enumerated the various inſtances in which a love of peace had induced them to comply with the requiſitions and incroachments of the court of Vienna. The emperor had at various times demanded an enlargement of territory on the ſide of Moldavia, the guarantee of the Porte for the peaceful behaviour of the Algerines, a freedom of navigation in the Black Sea, the revival of certain commercial ſtipulations which had formerly ſubſiſted between the two countries, but were ſuperſeded by the peace of Belgrade, and the admiſſion of a German conſul into Moldavia. In none of theſe demands had he been authorized by any ſubſiſting treaties, and yet all of them one after another had been conceded by the Porte. The court of Conſtantinople had upon no occaſion taken advantage of the embarraſſments of the houſe of Auſtria; they had chearfully ſubmitted to various ſacrifices for the preſervation of peace,

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and therefore conceived themſelves entitled to a better return than the preſent unprovoked hoſtilities of the emperor.

Inſtead of being diſheartened at the formidableneſs of the confederacy that had broken out againſt them, the Turks applied themſelves with redoubled ardour to prepare for reſiſtance. The grand viſier in perſon propoſed to march with the principal army to the vicinity of Belgrade; a numerous force was aſſembled for the defence of Croatia; and the garriſons along the frontier were univerſally ſtrengthened by reinforcements of men and proviſions. A fleet was collected with great labour and induſtry for the defence of Oczakow and to incline as much as poſſible the ſuperiority in the Black Sea to the ſide of the Turks, and the capitan pacha was deſtined to command it. A partial change was introduced in the council of the grand ſignior; the mufti, who had been the moſt ſtrenuous advocate for peace, was removed; and the party of the viſier was rendered every where triumphant.

After the attempt upon Dubicza and the other inferior expeditions we have deſcribed, the imperial forces continued for the moſt part inactive during the remainder of their winter campaign. The interval was interſperſed with a petty war of poſts which was related with great minuteneſs in the Vienna gazette; but nothing occurred that ſeems to deſerve to be mentioned except the attack of Turkiſh Gradiſca to the ſouth of the Save in the province of Croatia, which was repeatedly bombarded, but was defended by the Turks with the ſame unalterable courage and perſeverance that they had diſplayed at Dubicza. Meanwhile the tranſactions of the emperor appeared for the preſent at leaſt to be attended with greater ſucceſs in the way of negotiation and intrigue. General Clairfait was commiſſioned to treat with Mahmoud Ali, the celebrated rebel pacha of Scutari; and a ſimilar commerce was ſet on foot with Ypſilandi, a Grecian chieftain, who had about twelve months before been appointed hoſpodar of Moldavia. This negotiation was brought to its maturity in April, at the cloſe of which month the Auſtrian forces under general Fabris took poſſeſſion of Jaſſy the capital, and over-ran the whole province with the exception of the fortreſs of Choczim on the frontiers of Poland.

The emperor, marſhal Laſcy and the prince of Lichtenſtein repaired to the armies in Hungary and Croatia in the cloſe of March, but it was not till the latter end of April that the forces were put into motion. At that time the emperor in perſon undertook the aſſault of Schabatz, a fortreſs upon the Danube a little to the weſt of Belgrade, which was ſoon reduced to ſurrender. Prince Lichtenſtein had already formed the ſiege of Dubicza, and now conceived he had found a favourable opportunity of reducing the garriſon by ſtorm; but he was repulſed by the Turks, who, purſuing their advantage, attacked the Auſtrians in their trenches, and after a general action of three hours are ſaid to have been defeated. Their adverſary however thought proper that very night to raiſe the ſiege, to break up his camp, croſs the river that divided the imperial from the Turkiſh territories, and ſtation his forces in ſuch a manner as might beſt cover the former from the enterprizes of the Ottomans. Theſe were for ſome time the laſt offenſive operations of the Auſtrians.

They had vehemently boasted of the decisive advantages they should possess over an undisciplined enemy, and they still talked of the siege of Belgrade. But this operation was from time to time deferred, they remained for the most part quiet in their camp, and at length the arrival of the grand visier and his army gave a new turn to the fate of the campaign.

The vast empire of Russia advanced in its warlike operations with a slower progress. This was ascribed in part to the wisdom and maturity of her counsels, not hurried on like the emperor by a puerile impatience, exposing his troops to the pernicious operations of a wintry sky, or gratifying a restless disposition by puny war; but waiting for the moment of energy, and watchful to strike a decisive blow. We must not however ascribe the slowness of the Russians entirely to their wisdom. Though their empire was extensive, its provinces were desert and uninhabited, and they were little prepared either in population or revenue to support the burthen of war. In the very commencement of hostilities they had made a levy of one man in an hundred through their vast dominions, and this was expected to produce a hundred thousand men; and, in consequence of certain unfavourable events that occurred in the course of the campaign, the government paper became so reduced in its credit as to be negociated at a discount of seventy per cent. We do not give these as unquestionable facts; but they probably had some foundation in truth, and they enable to judge of the idea formed of the situation of Russia in neighbouring nations. Certain it is that the empress found it necessary to suspend the progress of the public edifices and canals that had been undertaken, and to convert equally the sums destined for necessary improvements and philosophical discoveries to the support of the war.

The armies under Potemkin and Romanzow had been in some degree formed during the last campaign, and they received continual reinforcements in the course of the present year. The army of the former, which was destined for the siege of Oczakow, and consisted of seventy thousand men attended with a train of one hundred and twenty seven cannon, crossed the Hypanis or river Bog early in June; and the forces of Romanzow, which were estimated at fifty or sixty thousand men, at the same time passed the Niester. Soon after this operation general Romanzow detached one half of his army to join prince de Cobourg on the Pruth, who had already in the preceding month undertaken the bombardment of Choczim, but after a short trial found himself unequal to the pursuit of a regular siege. Meanwhile the naval preparations of Russia did not fall short of her military exertions. A numerous fleet was fitted out at the port of Cronstadt in the Baltic, which was destined to encounter that of the capitan pacha in the Archipelago. These efforts however were widely distant from the scene of action, and therefore attended with uncertainty. A fleet of an inferior sort was industriously created in the Euxine. It does not seem to have consisted of more than four ships of the line, three of which had been launched in the preceding summer at Cherson, together with some frigates and a considerable number of galleys; and these, being distributed into two squadrons,

ſquadrons, were ſtationed in part at Kinburn under the prince of Naſſau Siegen, and in part at Sebaſtopolis in the Crimea under admiral count Wainowitz. In the former of theſe ſquadrons Paul Jones, the celebrated freebooter, ſerved in the quality of rear admiral.

The naval armament of the Turks was an object of principal attention with the court of Conſtantinople. It was intended to be commanded by Haſſan Ali, who had made ſo diſtinguiſhed a figure in Egypt, and whoſe military reputation greatly ſurpaſſed that of the reſt of his countrymen. It was deſtined for the conqueſt of the Crimea, the favourite object which had excited the Turks to their late declaration of war. When the capitan pacha ſailed from the road of Conſtantinople on the twentieth of May, his fleet conſiſted of ſixteen ſhips of the line and nine frigates, beſide many ſmaller veſſels; and it was altogether impoſſible that the navy of Cronſtadt could arrive time enough to counteract his operations. His ſucceſs however did not correſpond with the expectations he excited; and the prince of Naſſau diſplayed not merely the ſuperiority of refinement and ſcience over barbariſm, but alſo threw contempt upon that inequality of force, which it has lately been the faſhion to conſider as deciſive in naval engagements.

Haſſan Ali appeared at the mouth of the Dnieper in the beginning of the following month. His adverſary found himſelf totally unable to encounter the vaſt ſuperiority of the Turkiſh force, and had therefore judiciouſly ſtationed his little fleet in the bay of Kinburn, commonly called the Liman, in ſhallow water where they could not ſafely be approached by ſhips of burthen. The Turkiſh admiral found it impracticable to bear down upon him with his whole force, and at the ſame time conceived he had ſufficient reaſon for confidence in his ſmaller veſſels, which amounted to fifty-ſeven, while thoſe of the enemy did not exceed twenty-ſeven ſail. He therefore ſent in this force to the attack on the nineteenth of June; but the prince of Naſſau, aware of his deſign, ſtationed his veſſels in ſuch a manner as to prevent an attack in line, and by his exertions repulſed the Turkiſh aſſailants. Two of their veſſels were blown up, one ſunk, and the reſt driven back in confuſion, till they got under protection of their ſhips of the line.

Haſſan was little accuſtomed to brook a defeat, and he reſolved to repair in perſon the miſcarriage of thoſe who acted under him. Forgetting the circumſtance which appears to have influenced his conduct in the former inſtance, and hurried on by a blind impetuoſity, he entered the Liman with his principal fleet, regardleſs of the ſhallowneſs of the navigation. Here, as might have been expected, his veſſel immediately ſtruck; but it was got off before the Ruſſians could advance to the attack. The wind was unfavourable, and therefore the prince of Naſſau put off the engagement to the next day, which was the twenty-eighth. In the mean time he had been reinforced with twenty-two veſſels of one gun each, that were built at Krementſchuck. In the beginning of the conflict a Turkiſh ſixty-four ſtruck upon the ſand and was aſſailed on all ſides by the Muſcovites. The conteſt laſted ſeveral hours, but the Turk was at length obliged to yield, and his crew was ſaved, though the

ſhip was blown up. A ſimilar fate attended the admiral ſhip of the capitan pacha. The Turks were prevented by the batteries of Kinburn from eſcaping out of the Liman during the night. The next morning more of the Ottoman ſhips of the line were found ſtranded; and, the prince of Naſſau having come up with his flotilla, a battle enſued, which laſted four hours and a half. In the reſult five other of the Turkiſh veſſels were deſtroyed, as well ſhips of the line as frigates, and two taken. The number of priſoners were near ſeventeen hundred. Two thouſand Turks are computed to have periſhed in the flames. Through the whole action they diſplayed a firmneſs and perſeverance altogether unconquerable, and were only ſubdued by the ruinous ſituation in which they had placed themſelves. The capitan pacha immediately after the action ſailed for Varna at the mouth of the Danube.

The Turks were not long before they found themſelves again in a condition to put to ſea; and prince Potemkin, who was preparing for the bombardment of Oczakow, found that his undertaking would be impracticable, ſo long as the Ottoman galleys ſhould be able to maintain their ſituation in its vicinity. He accordingly directed the prince of Naſſau to attack them, which ſervice was performed on the night of the eleventh of July. The engagement is ſaid to have endured eight hours, and the Turks ſuffered ſo much as to be obliged to quit their ſtation, while the Ruſſian commander returned to his anchorage under the fortreſs of Kinburn. Accordingly on the next day the prince of Naſſau, ſupported by the army on the other ſide, began the bombardment of Oczakow with ſuch ſucceſs, as to ſet fire to the towns in ſeveral places; but, the heavy artillery not being yet arrived, prince Potemkin was not able to commence a regular ſiege. The Turkiſh admiral in his retreat directed his courſe to Sebaſtopolis, with an intention of burning the ſquadron of count Wainowitz, conſiſting of two ſhips of ſixty-ſix guns, two of fifty, and eight frigates of forty guns each; but, after a battle of five hours, he was obliged to ſail away without effecting his purpoſe.

It was fortunate for Ruſſia that ſhe had ſo ſkilful a commander at the head of her navy in the Black Sea, as to make the interference of the fleet of Cronſtadt unneceſſary for the defence of her Tartarian dominions. The extreme diſtance they had to traverſe before they could arrive at the place of their deſtination, rendered the period of their arrival extremely uncertain; and the danger that would reſult to the liberties of Europe from the conqueſt of Turkey, together with the galling and unintermitted ſlavery in which the powers of the North, who were unable to reſiſt her, were held by the czarina, might excite a reaſonable apprehenſion of hoſtilities nearer to the metropolis of the empire. England and Pruſſia contemplated her projects with diſapprobation and jealouſy. Poland, Courland and Sweden looked with an impatient and anxious expectation for the moment when they might ſafely ſhake off the ſuperiority, which deprived them of all external authority, and diſtracted their centre with contention, faction and diſcord.

The monarch of the laſt of theſe countries in particular was in the vigour of his age, bold, enthuſiaſtic

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and enterprizing. The people over whom he reigned had indeed loſt all political conſequence and all internal harmony ſince the fatal reign of king Charles the Twelfth; but previouſly to that period they had figured among the moſt envied powers of Europe, and had twice in a manner given laws to the moſt eminent of their neighbours. The imbecility that ſucceeded upon the death of that celebrated monarch, had for half a century rendered them a prey to their ambitious and intriguing rivals. There were in the diet, ſays the royal hiſtorian of Pruſſia, a French party and a Ruſſian party; but there was not an individual among them that ſupported the party of the nation. The preſent ſovereign had endeavoured to remedy this inconvenience; he had counteracted an ariſtocracy which could never have been productive of benefit to his people; and he had not thought proper to diſſeminate principles of impartial liberty, as the moſt effectual balance to this dangerous inconvenience. He had found it neceſſary to employ the artificial influence of France in oppoſition to the graſping ambition of the empreſs of Ruſſia, but he was too enlightened and too proud to ſubmit implicitly to the dictates of either. For ſix years from the revolution of 1772, aſſiſted by the judicious and moderate counſel of count Charles Scheffer the governor of his youth, and baron Lilljencrantz miniſter of the finances, he had reigned with great tranquillity; but the diets of 1778 and 1786 had enabled the higher orders of the ſtate to recover a ſhare of their authority, while the intrigues of Ruſſia were daily becoming more formidable to the prince on the throne.

Such were the circumſtances that induced Guſtavus the Third to meditate a project of hoſtilities againſt Ruſſia. It can ſcarcely be doubted that he was encouraged in theſe views by the king of Pruſſia; and he was himſelf exceedingly anxious to engage the court of Denmark, which was equally expoſed to the oppreſſive tyranny of Ruſſia, and which, though narrow in its extent of dominions, was of ſome maritime importance, to make a common cauſe with him in the preſent criſis. Actuated by motives of this ſort, he viſited the court of Copenhagen in the cloſe of the year 1787, and again in the ſpring of 1788. He hoped to perſuade the prince royal, his near relation, of promiſing hopes, and whoſe early youth might be expected to render him ſuſceptible of projects of ambition and independence; and he exerted for this purpoſe his eloquence, and thoſe attractive and amiable manners by which he is peculiarly diſtinguiſhed. But the gold of Ruſſia, as it ſhould ſeem, and the ſiniſter counſels of the corrupt courtiers of the prince, prevailed over the powers of his underſtanding. Guſtavus ſuffered not merely from his hoſtility, but from the ambiguity of his deſigns, and departed with a perſuaſion that he might depend, if not upon his active ſupport, at leaſt upon his ſtrict neutrality.

The conduct of the king of Sweden at this time with the court of Ruſſia was ſuch, as we muſt either aſcribe to the moſt perfect frankneſs and candour, or to an unprecedented neglect of the eſtabliſhed rules of policy. He profeſſed to enter into the war as the ally of the grand ſignior, and his proceedings were preciſely ſuch as might have been

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expected from a decisive preference of the interests of that prince to his own. His preparations were commenced in the close of the year 1787; and it was on the ninth of June 1788 that the duke of Sudermania, brother to the king, set sail with twelve ships of the line from the port of Carlscroon; at the same time that a number of troops rendezvoused at Stockholm seemed only to wait for a favourable wind to transport them to the frontiers of Finland.

It was in this situation that count Rasomoufski, ambassador from the czarina to the court of Stockholm, delivered an official note to the Swedish administration on the eighteenth of June, demanding an explanation respecting these warlike preparations. It will not be easy to understand the transactions that followed upon this note, without recollecting the nature of the Russian ambassador's situation in the court of Gustavus. He was not considered here simply as what his title imported, the representative of his mistress, to transact with the servants of the king or to communicate intelligence to her administration. He was regarded as the head of a party in Sweden, as a visible centre of cabal and intrigue, and the animating soul of a body of men, who, instigated by the monarchy that delegated him, had frequently shaken the throne of Sweden to its foundation. The Russian party in that country had suffered a temporary defeat from the decisive conduct of Gustavus in the commencement of his reign; but they had since recovered the blow, and their machinations became every day more formidable. In this light the expressions of count Rasomoufski in the state paper we have mentioned will appear exceptionable, where he "declares, to the administration of the king, as well as to all persons of the Swedish nation possessing any share in its government, that the czarina entertained dispositions towards them the most entirely pacific, and took a sincere interest in the preservation of their tranquillity."

The mind of the king had probably been previously irritated by the intrigues of the Russian minister; and he accordingly conceived the warmest resentment against the language of this note. He declared he could no longer regard count Rasomoufski as the representative of a friendly power, and insisted that he should immediately quit the court and territories of Sweden. In a note addressed to the diplomatical corps in explanation of this proceeding, and dated on the twenty-third, Gustavus observes, that he had remarked with astonishment the language that for some months past had been held by the Russian ambassador. He had endeavoured to tranquillise his own alarms on this subject; he had wished not to suffer himself to credit the efforts made by count Rasomoufski, to plunge the nation once more into the errors that had seduced them in a period of anarchy, and to diffuse anew that spirit of discord which the king had happily exerted himself to extinguish. But the note of the eighteenth of June had dissipated these doubts. He there saw the ambassador trampling on all the established practices of independent nations. Appointed to declare the sentiments of his masters, an envoy could address himself to the monarch alone. Every other authority was foreign to him; every other witness superfluous. Such was the law, such the proceeding of every court in Europe, which had

in no inſtance been violated but for captious purpoſes, as were thoſe that had formerly been purſued by Ruſſia in the court of Stockholm.

It was natural in a miſunderſtanding of ſo peculiar a nature as that of Peterſburgh and Sweden, where the controverſy ſeemed in many reſpects to aſſume the character of perſonality, that the ſovereigns ſhould employ expreſſions of more harſhneſs and invective than are uſual in ſimilar ſituations. The empreſs of Ruſſia by way of repriſal thought proper to order the envoy of Sweden to quit her territories, and ſhe alſo explained her conduct in a circular note to the ambaſſadors reſident at Peterſburgh. It is unneceſſary to tranſcribe all the ſarcaſtic and unuſual expreſſions interſperſed in this paper. Among other allegations ſhe obſerves, that the king, beſide being reſtrained by that good faith which ought more deeply to be impreſſed in the hearts of ſovereigns than of other men, was forbidden by his ſolemn engagements to his people to undertake any war without firſt aſſembling, conſulting and obtaining the conſent of his ſubjects. She adds, that ſhe had been obliged to imitate the conduct of Guſtavus towards the Ruſſian ambaſſador, but with this difference; that her conduct had been characteriſed by ſincerity and candour, while that of the king of Sweden was full of artifice, duplicity and falſehood.

An incident at this time occurred, which will by different perſons be regarded either as an unpardonable inſtance of neglect on the part of the Swedes reſpecting an advantage which fortune ſeemed to have thrown into their hands, or as a freſh example of that ſincerity and plain dealing for which the nation has been ſo eminently illuſtrious. In the ſhort interval between the requiſition of count Raſomouſki and the determination of Guſtavus, the duke of Sudermania, who had for ſome time been cruiſing with the Swediſh fleet in the Baltic, fell in with the ſquadron of vice admiral Deſſen, which was proceeding from Cronſtadt to Elſineur, and conſiſted of four ſhips of the line, three of them of one hundred guns each, and four frigates. The Swediſh commander, inſtead of improving this opportunity to ſtrike a fatal blow at the Ruſſian navy, amuſed himſelf with demanding the ſalute from admiral Deſſen; and that officer with admirable preſence of mind replied, that, though by the ſtipulation of treaties there could be no queſtion of ſalute between Swediſh and Ruſſian ſhips, yet he was willing to pay a perſonal compliment to the duke of Sudermania.

The king of Sweden quitted the port of Stockholm on the twenty-fourth of June, and arrived with his army in Finland on the ſecond of July. Troops had for ſome time been collecting on the frontiers of both countries, and hoſtilities are ſaid to have commenced ſeveral days before the arrival of the king, both parties warmly contending that they had not been the firſt in offenſive attack. In the mean time the Ruſſians poſſeſſed the greateſt advantages upon this ſuppoſition, as they had in former treaties been the party to ſtrip the other of their territories, and had taken care to ſecure the ſtrongeſt paſſes to themſelves, while the frontiers of Sweden were left entirely defenceleſs. Soon after the appearance of Guſtavus two Ruſſian frigates were taken and brought into the port of Sweabourg, while the Swediſh troops took poſſeſſion of

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the pafs of Pytis, and formed the blockade of Nyflot.

No fooner had the king landed his army than he directed his chargé des affaires at the court of Peterfburgh, to communicate to the czarina the terms upon which he was willing to confent to the preferva-tion of peace. In this paper he demanded in the firft place the exemplary punifhment of count Rafomoufki for the illicit means he had employed in troubling the tranquillity of Sweden, and for having dared to intrude himfelf into the domeftic concerns of an independent kingdom. He expected that the empref fhould cede to him all that part of Finland and Carelia, together with the diftrict of Kexholm, which had been wrefted from Sweden by the treaties of Nyftadt and Abo, to indemnify him for the expence of his preparations. He required the czarina to accept the mediation of Sweden by authorizing him to offer to the Turks the ceffion of the Crimea and the regulation of the limits upon the footing of the treaty of Cainargi; or, if that did not prove acceptable to the divan, upon the footing on which they had ftood previoufly to the war of 1768. He demanded for the fecurity of his mediation, that the Ruffians fhould difarm their fleet, and recal their veffels from the Baltic and their troops from the newly acquired provinces, while the king of Sweden fhould be permitted to remain in arms till the conclufion of peace; and he added, that he would not depart in a fingle point from thefe propofitions.

Guftavus did not expect an anfwer to demands of this nature; and the only effect they produced on the court of Ruffia was to accelerate a manifefto, dated on the eleventh, and which only deferves to be mentioned, for the language in which it defcribes the Swedifh revolution of 1772. At that time the king, we are told, violently overturned the form of government of Sweden, the fecure bafis of the power of the fenate and the liberty of the people; and took into his own hands an abfolute and uncontrolable power. Such language, though in part juftly defcriptive of the event, would fcarcely have been held by any foreign ftate, but for the purpofe of exciting his fubjects to difaffection.

The principal action of the campaign was the naval battle off Hoogland, in the gulph of Finland. One of the peculiarities of the conduct of Sweden upon this occafion was their not fuffering the Ruffian fleet to fail for the Archipelago, and taking advantage of its abfence to attempt a blow againft the heart of the empire. In this proceeding there feems to be fomething of the haft and precipitation, which have frequently characterifed the actions of Guftavus, and have fometimes been productive of fuccefs and fometimes of misfortune. He might have found it difficult to furprife the vigilance of the czarina, and he was conftitutionally averfe to the patience and referve which fuch a plan of conduct muft have required. He was defirous of effectually affifting his fouthern ally; and he believed, it may be, that he fhould more completely humble the defpotifm of Ruffia, by deftroying its grand fleet, than by fuffering it to purfue its courfe and reap new laurels in the Archipelago.

Admiral Greig failed from the port of Cronftadt on the fourth of July,

July, and on the seventeenth he fell in with the fleet which the duke of Sudermania commanded, having under him to assist with his counsels admiral count Wrangel. The engagement which ensued, and which lasted five hours, was fought with considerable skill and obstinacy on both sides. The forces were nearly equal, the Russian fleet consisting of seventeen ships of the line, and the Swedish of fifteen, of an inferior weight of metal, but reinforced by five frigates, one of forty-four and the rest of forty guns each, which occasionally ranged themselves in the line of battle. There were lesser frigates and small vessels on each side. In the engagement the Russians captured the Prince Gustavus of sixty-eight guns carrying a flag; and the Swedes took a Russian seventy-four, and reduced another ship of the line to so disabled a state that it could not be repaired. The fleet of both parties in general suffered considerably in the battle.

While the fleet of the king was employed in this manner, the monarch in person advanced to besiege the fortress of Fredericsham. On the nineteenth his forces encamped within a few miles of the place, and in the following night their advanced guard was attacked by a select party of the garrison, whom they drove back in disorder. A few days afterwards a detachment of six thousand men was embarked at Sweabourg with orders to attack the fortress in the rear, while the king should advance against it in front. They were detained several days by contrary winds. At length on the first of August two cannon shot, the appointed signal of the disembarkation, were heard, and Gustavus sent forward a party towards the walls of the fort. It was then found, that the signal proceeded from the Russians, and that the troops were not disembarked. The Swedes however made good their retreat. On the next day the landing was effected, the governor of the fort caused the suburbs to be burned, and every thing seemed ready for an immediate storm.

The king of Sweden had undoubtedly promised himself, that, in the present unprovided state of the Russian frontier, the flower of the empress's army being marched to the most distant part of her dominions, he should obtain the most decisive advantages in a single campaign. But these expectations were suddenly reversed. Instead of finding himself in possession of the Russian frontier, his own dominions were invaded on a side where he least expected an enemy, his army was rendered inactive and useless, and his crown was exposed to the most imminent danger.

Repeated difficulties had been made in the Swedish army respecting the prerogative of the king to commence hostilities against Russia, it being expressly provided by an article in the constitution, that he should not undertake an offensive war without having obtained the consent of the states. From this consideration several Swedish officers had resigned their commissions immediately upon entering the province of Finland. In the mean time the flame of disaffection and discontent perpetually increased; and, when the king issued his command for the troops to advance against the fortress of Fredericsham, he encountered an unexpected and invincible resistance. Several officers at first remonstrated with him, that

there

there was a marſh between him and the enemy the paſſing of which would be found impracticable. Their anxiety for his ſafety would not permit them to ſuffer him to expoſe himſelf to ſo great a danger; and they hoped his regard for his ſubjects would prevent him from ſacrificing their lives to no purpoſe. The king was deaf to their repreſentations; and at length, throwing off the maſk, they declared that they could not engage in an enterpriſe ſo contrary to law, as an offenſive war without the conſent of the ſtates. From the officers the king turned to the troops. But they were already gained. One regiment ſet the example, and the greater part of the army laid down their arms. Guſtavus found himſelf obliged immediately to deſiſt from his undertakings. He broke up the ſiege of Fredericſham, he diſſolved the blockade of Nyſlot, and precipitately put an end to his offenſive operations. The buſineſs of the campaign was concluded in a moment.

Having cantoned his troops in the frontier of Ruſſia, the king ſoon after ſet out for Stockholm. Previouſly to his departure he publiſhed a manifeſto againſt the czarina, conſiderably more energetic in its ſtyle than the papers which had preceded. He charged her with having previouſly to the Turkiſh war, expreſsly conceived the project of annexing Swediſh Finland to her dominions. He added, that he had hitherto been unable to prevail upon himſelf to diſcloſe to the eyes of Europe the errors into which a part of his ſubjects had been led, rather by the intrigues of Ruſſia, than by any diſaffection inherent in themſelves. Accuſtomed to regard his people with the eyes of paternal tenderneſs, cheriſhing his ſubjects as his children, he felt how much it coſt a father to diſcover faults, that he would willingly have buried in oblivion. But nothing ſhort of this could illuſtrate the unjuſt conduct of a neighbouring power and the injuries ſuſtained by the king. The intereſt of the nation at large demanded, that Europe ſhould be informed of the extent of the calamity with which the ſtate had been menaced, of the plots that had been formed under cover of an inſidious peace even againſt the perſon of the king, and of the true nature of that conduct, which Ruſſia had purſued under the guiſe of moderation, of that conduct, which concealed purpoſes abundantly more deſtructive, than the calamities ordinarily attendant upon war.

During the progreſs of theſe hoſtilities count Raſomoufski ſtill continued to reſide in the capital of Sweden. At firſt he refuſed to depart till he was recalled by his court; and that obſtacle being removed, he inſiſted upon returning home through the province of Finland, while the king, refuſing this, gave him his choice of every other route. It is now ſufficiently viſible why count Raſomoufski laid ſo much ſtreſs on this circumſtance, or at leaſt why the king was naturally jealous of his preſence with the army. Meanwhile his reſidence at Stockholm was it ſeems more uſeful than his departure by any other road; and accordingly having continued there till he ſaw his projects advanced to conſiderable maturity, he quitted the capital and kingdom on the eleventh of Auguſt.

The motive, which had obliged the king ſo precipitately to withdraw himſelf from the army in Finland,

land, was chiefly derived from the unexpected determination of the court of Denmark. Guſtavus, as we have remarked, had been extremely aſſiduous in cultivating the friendſhip of the prince royal, in whoſe hands the regency was veſted, and every exterior token ſeemed to imply the ſucceſs of his efforts. The prince ſet out upon a tour in Norway in the month of June, and he was every day expected to pay a friendly viſit to the frontiers of Sweden, whither Guſtavus had ſent certain officers of his court to compliment him upon his arrival. Prince Charles of Heſſe, brother of the reigning landgrave, and the Daniſh viceroy of Norway, had preceded him in this tour; and, being received with great urbanity and politeneſs by the Swediſh officers, had viſited the fortifications of Warberg, Elfsburg and Gottenburg. But all theſe amicable appearances were ſuddenly changed. The prince royal put an abrupt period to his tour in the beginning of Auguſt, the Ruſſians applied for the ſuccours ſtipulated as it ſhould ſeem by treaty, their demand was granted by the Daniſh court, and it was reſolved that the troops ſhould be, not tranſported into Ruſſia for the defence of her territories, but marched againſt the ſouthern frontier of Sweden, which was altogether unprepared for defence.

Difficulties on every ſide ſeemed to ariſe to cruſh the falling monarch. The Swediſh conſtitution was of a peculiar nature, and, previouſly to the revolution of 1772, had placed all the ſubſtantial power in the diet, where from the actual ſtate of Sweden the nobility uſually more than overbalanced the other three orders, and during the receſs of the diet in the ſenate, the members of which were all perſons of hereditary diſtinction. At the revolution the king, in order to annihilate the irreſiſtible influence of the ſenate, had made it an article in the new form of government, that no meaſure belonging to the ordinary functions of adminiſtration ſhould be carried in oppoſition to the king, unleſs the ſenate were unanimous in approving it; and it could hardly be ſuppoſed, that a monarch, poſſeſſing all the influence annexed to his office, could in any caſe fail to gain one ſenator to his party. But by a ſtrange overſight the caſe of the king's abſence from his capital was entirely unprovided for; and, as he poſſeſſed no conſtitutional mode of oppoſing their reſolutions by proxy, their power became in that event as formidable as ever. Accuſtomed to be guided, the ſenate of 1788 for ſome time ſhewed themſelves ſufficiently docile, explicitly approving all the meaſures of the king in the Ruſſian war. But they at length caught the contagion that infected the army, and reſolved without the privity of Guſtavus to aſſemble a diet, under pretence of ſettling the miſunderſtandings and contentions of the kingdom.

No ſooner had the king quitted the army in Finland than the officers entered into an avowed correſpondence with the court of Ruſſia. They ſent deputies to Peterſburgh propoſing a ceſſation of arms, till the Swediſh ſenate ſhould have determined on the meaſures it would be proper to adopt, to bring back the ſovereign to his dependence on the conſtitution, and to oblige him to abandon a war which he had raſhly and unjuſtly commenced. The repreſentatives of the army were received with great cordiality by the

czarina,

czarina, and their requeſt readily granted. The negotiation was carried on under the eyes and in defiance of the counteraction of the duke of Sudermania, who had come on ſhore to aſſume the command of the army in the abſence of his brother, and who thought proper in the ſequel to confirm the articles of convention, deſigning by that means to conceal as much as poſſible the anarchy and diſobedience that had erected their ſtandard in Sweden. The royal army retreated from the frontiers of Ruſſia, and the enemy took immediate poſſeſſion of the defiles and paſſes through which only their country could be penetrated. One officer alone, lieutenant general Platen, declared his diſſent from the capitulation, and maintained his ſtation in Carelia, declaring that he could not ſubmit to be bound by the ſignature of his commander in chief, when that ſignature was extorted from him.

The firſt meaſure of the king of Sweden under this complicated difficulty was to diſpatch a meſſenger to Copenhagen, probably ſubſequent to their deciſion upon the demands of Ruſſia, but before the deciſion was declared, requiring the mediation of that court, in order to his obtaining a juſt and equitable peace with the empreſs of Ruſſia. He next entered his metropolis, and by his ſudden arrival annihilated the reſolution of the ſenate for aſſembling a diet. At Stockholm he indeed found a ſtrong party of the nobility inimical to him, but the people at large were enthuſiaſtically prepoſſeſſed in his favour. Some of the officers, who had reſigned their commiſſions, repaired to the metropolis, where they could not appear in public without experiencing the moſt mortifying reception. The very ſight of a cockade was ſure to be a mark for the hiſſes and ſcorn of the populace, and every one that wore it was exclaimed upon as the penſioner of Ruſſia. The king arrived on the firſt of September; and, having immediately marched all the regular forces of the capital to the defence of the ſouthern provinces, he addreſſed the inhabitants, expreſſing his entire confidence in their loyalty and affection, and declaring that he deemed the royal family not leſs ſafe under the protection of the citizens of Stockholm than under a military guard. He therefore requeſted them in this emergency to take the defence of the capital upon themſelves; and the inhabitants, grateful for theſe marks of his attachment, ſpeedily enrolled themſelves to the number of two thouſand, clothed themſelves in a uniform, and aſſumed in all reſpects the appearance of regular troops.

The king reſided for a few days during theſe tranſactions at his country ſeat of Haga in the neighbourhood of Stockholm, and on the twelfth ſet out for the province of Dalecarlia, the moſt weſterly diviſion of the kingdom of Sweden. This province, celebrated for its mines of copper, had been the retreat of Guſtavus Vaſa during the uſurpation of Denmark, and had at all times been diſtinguiſhed for its attachment to its ſovereigns. The king upon this occaſion threw himſelf upon their generoſity; he deſcended into the mines, and addreſſed their laborious inhabitants. The Dalecarlians offered him a guard of three thouſand ſelect young men, and promiſed that that number ſhould be doubled if neceſſary. The king replied, that he hoped he ſhould never

never ſtand in need of a guard againſt his own ſubjects, but that, if they would follow him in the defence of their country, he would gratefully accept of their aſſiſtance.

From Dalecarlia the king proceeded with this new body of volunteers to Wermlandia, the adjoining province on the ſoutherly ſide, where he ſtill farther recruited his forces; and arrived on the twenty-ſixth at Carlſtadt. A conſiderable reinforcement from Swediſh Pomerania was alſo tranſported to Calmar and the other garriſons upon the Baltic, and the whole kingdom wore the face of hoſtility and reſiſtance. Meanwhile Guſtavus had received the notification of the court of Denmark, which ſeems to have been diſpatched previouſly to their receiving his requeſt of mediation; and he replied on the eleventh of September, the day before he ſet out for Dalecarlia, that after what had paſſed he had little expected to ſee a peace of ſixty years continuance wantonly violated; that he had till this moment been ignorant of the alledged engagements of Denmark and Ruſſia; that in the mean time if the king, as was the uſage of all civilized ſtates, ſent his reinforcements to the territories of Ruſſia and the exiſting theatre of hoſtility, he would conſent, as the king of Denmark required, to the regarding him merely as an auxiliary; but that, if on the contrary a direct invaſion was made on the territory of Sweden, he would regard the peace as violated, and the Dane as the aggreſſor.

The auxiliaries to be furniſhed by the court of Copenhagen conſiſted of a fleet to the amount of ſix ſhips of the line and an army of twelve thouſand men; and the period fixed for the commencement of hoſtilities was the twenty-fourth. Vice-admiral Deſſen, immediately after his rencounter with the duke of Sudermania, had ſailed for Elſineur, where he was ſtationed for the purpoſe of intercepting the commerce of Sweden at its entrance into the Baltic; and, in order to counteract his efforts, three Swediſh frigates cruiſed at Gottenburg a few leagues nearer to the German ocean. At the appointed time the Ruſſian admiral was immediately joined by three Daniſh ſhips of the line, and the combined fleet ſet ſail for the Baltic. Thus circumſtanced we might imagine the duke of Sudermania to have been placed between two fires, but he prudently laid up his fleet in the port of Sweabourg in Finland, and did not return to Carlſcroon till juſt before the ſetting in of the winter.

Prince Charles of Heſſe Caſſel, commander in chief of the land forces of Denmark, ſailed from Jutland to the province of Norway in the beginning of September; and was accompanied in his campaign by the prince royal. He entered the territories of Sweden on the day appointed, and on the twenty-ſixth took poſſeſſion without oppoſition of the port town of Stromſtadt. The head quarters of the army ſtationed to oppoſe him under general Hierta were at Wennerſburg, and a detachment was placed in a ſtrong point nearer to the ſea at Quiſtrum. This force, which conſiſted of about ſeven hundred men, the prince of Heſſe was fortunate enough to ſurround, and on the twenty-ninth they ſurrendered at diſcretion. The prince immediately ſent forward an officer to ſummon the town of Uddewalla, an advantageous poſt about forty miles from Gottenburg, which he entered on the firſt of October.

He next ſummoned Gottenburg itſelf, which was the principal object of his expedition, and reſpecting which it had even been reported, that it was promiſed by the czarina to be guaranteed to the crown of Denmark, to indemnify them for the expences of the war.

The officer, who was ſent to ſummon the fortreſs of Gottenburg to ſurrender, reached that place on the fifth, and was introduced to the king of Sweden in perſon. The monarch had travelled one hundred miles on horſeback, almoſt alone, and not without danger of being taken by the enemy, to prevent the cataſtrophe of this important place. He found that the governor had before his arrival called together the inhabitants, and recommended to them an immediate ſubmiſſion. The king reached Gottenburg on the night of the third, and the next morning, having aſſembled the citizens, he informed them that he regarded their town as one of the moſt precious jewels in his crown, and adjured them to aſſiſt him in preventing it from falling into the hands of the enemy. The effect of this proceeding was immediate. They declared that they would ſubmit in every thing to his direction; and the king, having firſt changed the governor of the fortreſs, proceeded to make every preparation for an obſtinate defence.

But the termination of this buſineſs was more propitious than it might be expected to have been. The king of Sweden had probably been encouraged in his hoſtilities againſt Ruſſia by the courts of London and Berlin; and they did not deſert him in this emergency. The Britiſh government had received repeated affronts from the empreſs of Ruſſia, none of which were forgotten. The meaſure of the armed neutrality, though it ſeems to have been founded in ideas of perfect equity, was regarded by her as a deep wound given to her intereſts at a time when ſhe was leaſt able to reſent it. The czarina had alſo ſuffered the court of London to ſue repeatedly in vain for a renewal of the commercial treaty, which, having expired in April 1786, received a temporary prolongation for twelve months, and after that was ſuffered to be entirely ſuperſeded. In conſequence of theſe tranſactions the intimate friendſhip and alliance, which had ſubſiſted between England and Ruſſia, ceaſed, or rather was exchanged on the part of the former for a painful and reſtleſs emotion of animoſity and revenge. The king of Pruſſia on the other hand was actuated by ambition and a ſort of puerile ardour for fame, to which he had been encouraged by the ſucceſs of his early fraternal expedition againſt Holland. He was accordingly deſirous of rivalling the inſolent and deſpotic ſway of Ruſſia among the neighbouring powers. He had already commenced a ſeries of intrigues in Poland, and he was equally deſirous of ſuppreſſing the influence of the czarina in Denmark and Sweden.

It was ſingular that at this time neither the courts of London, Berlin nor Verſailles had any authentic and titled repreſentative in the dominions of Sweden. The place however of a thouſand negociators was amply ſupplied by Mr. Hugh Elliot, the Engliſh envoy to the court of Copenhagen, who upon the firſt notice of hoſtilities paſſed over into Sweden, and met king Guſtavus at

Carlſtadt.

Carlſtadt. It muſt have been no ſmall conſolation to the agitated monarch, after all his fatigues and anxieties, to be promiſed the effectual ſupport of the kings of England and Pruſſia. Cheered by this auſpicious mediator, the king took the earlieſt opportunity of ſignifying to the court of Copenhagen, that he was contented to regard their forces merely as auxiliary till the event of the preſent negociation ſhould be known; and to publiſh a declaration to his ſubjects, in which, at the ſame time that he exhorted them to firmneſs and exertion, he acquainted them with the hope he had formed of the immediate retreat of their ſouthern invader.

Mr. Elliot loſt no time in endeavouring to fulfil the expectations of his royal client. He addreſſed two letters to the prince of Heſſe, requiring him in the name of the allied courts to conſent to an immediate ceſſation of hoſtilities, to which the Daniſh commander returned no favourable anſwer. Upon his arrival at Gottenburg on the ſixth of October, he wrote a third letter, in a ſtyle ſtill more emphatical. "At this very moment," ſaid he, "war is perhaps declared againſt Denmark by Pruſſia and England; but, if your highneſs will conſent to what I propoſe, I will immediately diſpatch couriers to ſtop if poſſible the invaſion of a Pruſſian army in Holſtein and the ſailing of our fleet." He requeſted the prince of Heſſe to read his letter to the prince royal. "It is written by the ambaſſador of the king his uncle, by a man wholly devoted to the prince, and who riſks his own life to prevent the effuſion of the blood of others."

The Daniſh commander was placed in a very critical ſituation. He had Gottenburg in view, and as he believed in his power. But he could not obtain it in the manner he had at firſt expected to have done by the voluntary ſurrender of the inhabitants. They were reſolved on an inflexible reſiſtance, and he was unwilling to lay this populous and flouriſhing city in aſhes. The threats alſo of the courts of London and Berlin were matters of ſerious conſideration, and the attack of Gottenburg was repreſented by Mr. Elliot as the ſignal of the moſt determined hoſtilities on their part. Under theſe circumſtances the reſolution of the Daniſh princes was in favour of compliance; a ceſſation of hoſtilities was immediately granted, and was formally ſigned on the ninth of October.

Though from incidental circumſtances this important tranſaction had been completed by the Engliſh envoy, the court of Berlin fully concurred in the meaſures that were adopted. A Pruſſian envoy arrived at Gottenburg in the following week, and preſently after, in compliance with the ſpirit of the triple alliance recently concluded, the Dutch ambaſſador at the city of Stockholm repaired to the ſcene of negociation. A Pruſſian declaration, which had been prepared at the period of the miſſion of Mr. Elliot, was delivered at the court of Copenhagen, threatening an invaſion of the duchy of Holſtein; and it produced the immediate effect of cauſing orders to be ſent to the prince of Heſſe to evacuate the territories of Sweden.

By the time that the ceſſation of hoſtilities had been completed, the ſtrength of the king of Sweden in this part of his dominions was ſo far increaſed, as to have enabled him

to place the Daniſh invader in a very precarious ſituation. The volunteers of Dalecarlia, who had armed and equipped themſelves without aſſiſtance from the public revenue, amounted to four thouſand men. They were reinforced by the volunteers of Wermlandia. The garriſon of Stockholm was marched in the beginning of September. Detachments were every day received from the army in Finland. The Pomeranian troops reached Sweden in ſafety, though the fleet of admiral Deſſen had cruiſed for the expreſs purpoſe of intercepting them. It is difficult to pronounce, whether it were circumſtances of this ſort that influenced the mind of Guſtavus, in the difficulties he afterwards created reſpecting the terms of compromiſe. A ſmall fleet of proviſion boats belonging to Denmark was taken by the Swedes on the eleventh and twelfth of October; and as the articles of ceſſation mentioned only the land forces, the king refuſed to reſtore them. The prince of Heſſe alledged on his part that he had not been influenced by this omiſſion, and had ſent immediate notice of the ceſſation to the Daniſh admiral. When at length they were conceded, the king was ſtill unwilling to part with the Swediſh cannon that had been taken at Quiſtrum and were found on board; and theſe were preſented to him by the prince royal. The king alſo complained, and that as it ſhould ſeem without any very urgent reaſon, of the modes purſued by the prince of Heſſe in obtaining proviſions upon the Swediſh territories, and threatened upon that ground a renewal of hoſtilities; and he afterwards excuſed himſelf as having done this more for the ſake of ſhewing attention to his ſubjects, than for the prince of Heſſe. Various paſſions contended in the breaſt of Guſtavus. He felt a deep reſentment of the invaſion of the Danes, and he regretted the not being permitted, when he conceived it was in his power, to make them dearly repent it. Meanwhile the points, which were thus in debate between him and the prince of Heſſe, were matters of ſo extreme delicacy, that we have ſome doubts in deciding reſpecting them. Mr. Elliot however, who had at firſt entered with ardour into the cauſe of the king of Sweden, condemned him, as it appears with ſome acrimony, in theſe proceedings; and he was ſupported in his deciſion by the envoy of Pruſſia. But the ſcene rapidly advanced towards its cloſe. The firſt ſuſpenſion of arms had been for a week only *, but it was ſpeedily prolonged to a month, and upon the expiration of that term a ceſſation was adjuſted for ſix months concluding with May 1789. The Daniſh troops finally evacuated the territories of Sweden on the twelfth of November.

We ſee, in the miſcellaneous tranſactions of the Swediſh campaign, the various and mixed character of Guſtavus exhibited upon an intereſting theatre. The deſire of annihilating by one ſpirited and adventurous blow the odious uſurpation of Ruſſia was laudable and juſt. But the king did not nicely calculate the

* The London Gazette has made two miſtakes in this particular. It has placed the date of the convention on the tenth inſtead of the ninth, and has tranſlated "huit jours [a week]" by the words "eight days," ſo making the ſuſpenſion expire on the eighteenth inſtead of the ſixteenth of October.

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different parts of his ſyſtem, and there is hardly one of his meaſures that might not have been better timed or more judiciouſly executed. He had a great and animating cauſe to plead againſt the czarina; but in his papers upon the ſubject he mixes right and wrong, truth and falſehood together, and plainly imagines that ſpecious fiction might be of as much ſervice to him as ingenuous truth. His talents, his eloquence, his mild and amiable manners prepoſſeſs us in his favour. We cannot refuſe our compaſſion to a prince of a proud and independent ſpirit, intrigued againſt by a foreign miniſter, dictated to by a neighbour, betrayed by his ſubjects, deſerted by his friends, invaded without hoſtility; unappalled by all theſe calamities, flying from one end of the kingdom to the other, rouſing the pooreſt of his ſubjects to arms, penetrating through the midſt of the enemy, and appearing as it were by enchantment to arreſt his inſulting progreſs. But we feel the bittereſt regret to find ſuch a character full of error and imperfection, oppoſing ariſtocracy, but graſping at deſpotiſm; full of luminous conceptions, but ignorant of the value of truth and integrity; and in all things guided, not by ſevere and inflexible juſtice, but by the precarious ebullition of a tranſitory feeling.

The tranſactions of Sweden have occaſioned a conſiderable interruption in our narrative of the theatre of the war in Turkey. We left the emperor at the head indeed of his army, whither he had probably come in purſuit of fame, but diſcouraged by the obſtinate and undaunted reſiſtance of the Turks, and ſuddenly changing his lofty ideas of conqueſt and extended dominion for the ill-judged timidity and caution of a defenſive war. Yſſouf, the viſier, at the head of the grand Ottoman army, advanced by a ſlow and tedious progreſs, reaching Sophia on the neareſt confines of Bulgaria in the cloſe of May, and not arriving at Niſſa, one hundred and thirty miles ſouth weſt of Belgrade, till the beginning of Auguſt. But his arrival was not the leſs certain, or the leſs to be dreaded by an army, that found itſelf completely checked and counteracted by the detachments and precurſors of his march. Since the imperialiſts had determined upon a defenſive war, the Turks had already ſhown themſelves ſufficiently diſpoſed to an attack. They had aſſailed the lines of the prince of Lichtenſtein in June, and the poſts of the main army at Semlin in the following month; and, though theſe efforts had not been attended with ſucceſs, they ſufficiently diſplayed the adventure, the intrepidity and fierceneſs of the Ottoman troops.

Upon the arrival of the viſier the war aſſumed a more formidable appearance. Two ſucceſſive attacks were made upon the quarters of general Fabris in Tranſylvania; and, though they are ſaid to have been defeated, that officer thought proper to decamp from Hermanſtadt and remove to Talmaſch nearer to the kingdom of Hungary. At the ſame time a conſiderable body of Turkiſh troops made an irruption into the Bannat of Temeſwar, when they intrenched themſelves in ſpite of the oppoſition of general count Wartenſleben, who was ſtationed with eight thouſand men for the defence of that province. Upon intelligence of their ſucceſs the viſier immediately diſpatched a reinforcement chiefly conſiſting of cavalry

under the ſeraſkier of Georgia, who croſſed the Danube on the ſeventeenth of Auguſt. Count Wartenſleben prepared to receive the invaders at a defile in the front of his camp; and the emperor, apprehenſive for the ſafety of this little army, broke up his camp at Semlin, and entered the Bannat with the principal army. But the Turks loſt no time in their operations; and, during the imperial march, attacked the defile upon which Wartenſleben had placed his dependence, carried an advanced poſt, and put to the ſword a conſiderable part of one of his regiments which was ſtationed in it, without giving quarter to either officers or ſoldiers. The defile however ſeemed to be only their ſecondary object; and during the action a large party of Turks made a circuitous march in order to drive the commander in chief from the heights where he was advantageouſly poſted in the neighbourhood of Meadia. In both theſe attacks they diſplayed great gallantry, but were ultimately repulſed. Undiſmayed however by this miſcarriage, they began on the twenty-fifth to erect batteries on a mountain about a mile from the Auſtrian camp, and on the twenty-ſixth and twenty-eighth attacked one of Wartenſleben's principal redoubts, which they carried in the laſt aſſault. On the ſame day they tranſported heavy cannon to the ſummit of a hill, which had been judged by the imperialiſts wholly inacceſſible, and from whence they had the entire command of their camp. Theſe circumſtances, added to the delay of ſuccour expected from the emperor, determined count Wartenſleben to quit his poſition, and retire towards Caranſebes, which he effected on the following day with no great loſs, though continually haraſſed in his retreat by the Turkiſh forces. The conſequence of this motion was that the town of Meadia together with ſome neighbouring villages and magazines fell into the hands of the ſeraſkier. The progreſs of the Turks in Tranſylvania kept pace with the operations upon the Danube.

The campaign in the Bannat was rendered an object of ſtill greater moment in the beginning of the enſuing month, the emperor having effected a junction with Wartenſleben, and the Turkiſh commander in chief united his camp with that of the ſeraſkier. The imperial army, whoſe camp was pitched at Illova near Caranſebes, was attacked on the fourteenth by that of the viſier, who attempted, by fetching a circuit about the right wing of the enemy and attacking him in flank, at once to drive him from his intrenchments and cut off his retreat. In this attack however they were unſucceſsful. But the exultation of the Auſtrians was of ſhort duration. They learned on the nineteenth that the detachment which had been ſtationed at Moldava north weſt of the Danube, had been driven from thence to Weiſſkerchen and from Weiſſkerchen to Werſchetz; and in conſequence the grand army found it neceſſary precipitately to break up their camp, and fall back upon Tranſylvania, leaving all the low country of Hungary to the mercy of the enemy. The imperialiſts were now reduced to the greateſt extremity. Having quitted Illova in the evening of the twenty-firſt, two columns of the army croſſed each other in the dark, and being ſeized with a ſudden panic, ſome of the Auſtrian corps fired upon each other. The

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ſervants of the army having caught the alarm, threw the loads from the horſes and carriages, and fled in the utmoſt confuſion. Lugos, which was the grand ſeat of the Auſtrian magazines, was the deſtined place of their retreat. But the terror of the enemy had preceded them to this place, and the army baggage had already been ſent off to Temeſwar. Some Walachians, accuſed of having given the alarm at Lugos, were broken upon the wheel by a ſummary proceſs. In the mean time the Turks inceſſantly harraſſed the rear of the retreating emperor. Such was the account communicated from Vienna. But at Conſtantinople the event was placed in a different light. It was confidently aſſerted, that the viſier had attacked the Auſtrians in their camp, and forced them to a precipitate flight. As a proper ſequel to ſuch a ſeries of advantages, the grand ſignior was publicly ſaluted by the title of Gazi or victorious, and the declaration of his ſucceſs was read in all the moſques of the capital, which is the Turkiſh mode of proclaiming their military triumphs. Meanwhile the imperialiſts in their retreat from the Danube burned Panczowa and fourteen other villages, to prevent them from affording harbour or relief to the enemy.

Theſe were among the laſt operations of the campaign. The ſeaſon of the year became rainy and inclement; the timariots or feudataries of Aſia, who had engaged themſelves only for a ſummer's campaign, became impatient to return to their reſpective provinces; and the viſier, who had been able to raiſe his army to a deciſive ſuperiority over that of the emperor, could not induce them to deſpiſe climates and ſeaſons. Almoſt immediately after the advantages by which he had driven the Auſtrians back upon Tranſylvania, he found himſelf obliged to meditate a retreat. The emperor immediately broke up his camp in imitation of the Turkiſh commander; and, in proportion as the latter receded towards the banks of the Danube, the former directed his march to his former encampment at Semlin. At one of the villages in his way a diviſion of his army was attacked by a conſiderable body of Turks, who with their uſual intrepidity and ſucceſs cut to pieces a body of Auſtrians to the amount of three hundred and fifty men; and in croſſing the Danube, which was in their rear, preſerved the utmoſt order, and carried off their pontons in their retreat. This action took place on the twentieth of October, and on the next day the emperor took the redoubt of Vipalanka, when a ſtand was made by one thouſand men of the Ottoman army. Of all the poſts he had reduced in the Bannat the viſier retained only the defile, upon which count Wartenſleben had originally placed his hopes of reſiſtance, and which had not been taken till after three weeks ſiege by the whole Turkiſh army.

The campaign in Croatia had been more favourable to the Auſtrians than the campaign upon the Danube. Prince Charles of Lichtenſtein, the original commander, having reſigned on account of his health, he was ſucceeded by marſhal Laudohn, the celebrated officer who had made head againſt the king of Pruſſia in the Bavarian war. Immediately before his arrival in Croatia the commander per interim had attacked the Turks in their camp under the walls of Dubicza on the ninth of Auguſt,

and after a ſevere conteſt had obliged them to yield their trenches to the victorious enemy. The ſiege of Dubicza was now commenced; but the Turks, undiſmayed by their recent diſaſter, returned to the relief of the garriſon both before and after marſhal Laudohn had aſſumed the command, who arrived in the camp on the eighteenth. They were however in both inſtances repulſed, and the fortreſs at length ſurrendered to the Auſtrians on the twenty-ſixth. From Dubicza the army proceeded to Novi, before which place the trenches were opened on the tenth of September. The Auſtrians were here again attacked by the army of the Turkiſh pacha, but without ſucceſs; and, having effected what was deemed a practicable breach, a general aſſault was given on the twenty-firſt, in which marſhal Laudohn was repulſed. The fortreſs was a ſecond time aſſailed, and the garriſon ſurrendered on terms of diſcretion on the third of October. The ſiege of Turkiſh Gradiſka was next attempted; but the inclemency of the ſeaſon, and the overflowing of the river, obliged the Auſtrians to put an end to the campaign before the fortreſs was reduced.

We have already mentioned the negociations of the emperor with the rebel pacha of Scutari. The Auſtrian envoys were at firſt received with great attention and cordiality by the ſavage chieftain, but when they departed they were intercepted in their return, three of them aſſaſſinated, and the one who ſurvived effected his eſcape with great difficulty. The pacha, it ſeems, conceived that he had now found a proper opportunity to reconcile himſelf to the Ottoman Porte; and, having ſacrificed theſe Germans to his cruel policy, is ſaid to have ſent their heads as a preſent to the grand viſier. But Yſſouf received his overtures with indignation, declaring, that his preſents were not leſs odious than his principles were deteſtable, and that the period would infallibly arrive when he would ſuffer the adequate vengeance of his complicated villanies. The Turkiſh commander indeed ſeems in many inſtances to have acted with great magnanimity and generoſity. The emperor is ſaid to have remonſtrated with him reſpecting the decapitations and other mutilations practiſed by his partiſan troops on the dead bodies of the imperialiſts; and the viſier iſſued ſtrict orders to prevent ſuch practices for the future. The officers of the emperor who ſo eminently diſtinguiſhed themſelves in defending the defile of Temeſwar, he treated with particular humanity, complimenting them highly on their valour and abilities, and immediately diſmiſſing them under a proper eſcort to the emperor's camp. On the other hand many barbarous ſtories were related of the Turks by their chriſtian antagoniſts, but theſe may eaſily be accounted for, by ſuppoſing them to have happened without the countenance and in defiance of the vigilance of Yſſouf. We are unwilling to ſubtract any thing from the horrors of war, which will make it the everlaſting abhorrence of the philanthropiſt and the philoſopher; but then neither can we conſent unneceſſarily to load with imputations an eminent individual. It is on all hands acknowledged that the military ſkill exerted by Yſſouf in this campaign was conſummate and uncommon, and we do not ſee the neceſſity of gratuitouſly ſuppoſing the man of talents to be a knave. It

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was under the patronage of this viſier that the project was commenced of printing at Conſtantinople a tranſlation of the Encyclopédie. An armiſtice was concluded on the twenty-firſt of November between the Auſtrians and the Turks, by which both parties agreed not to re-commence hoſtilities without giving a ten days previous notice.

The operations of the Ruſſian forces were directed againſt Choczim and Oczakow. In the former of theſe undertakings they acted rather as auxiliaries to the emperor's general, the prince of Saxe Cobourg, who had bombarded the city previouſly to his junction with general Soltikow on the laſt day of June. After their union the attack became more powerful. Five batteries were opened againſt the city on the twentieth, and the cannonade became ſo deſtructive as in a few days to reduce almoſt the whole to a pile of ruins. On the twenty-ſixth the fortreſs was ſummoned to ſurrender on a preſumption that the proviſions of the garriſon had been wholly deſtroyed by the bombardment. The governor demanded an armiſtice of three days; but in the ſequel, finding that the corn in his hands, though enveloped in fire and ſmoke, was not wholly incapable of uſe, he gave notice to the beſiegers that he would hold out to the laſt. The capture of this important place occupied the united armies two months longer, and in the mean time a detachment under the imperial general Spleny recovered Jaſſy, which had been loſt amidſt the numerous checks of the campaign, on the third of September. Choczim ſurrendered on the twenty-ninth; and marſhal Romanzow, being delivered by this event from the inactivity in which he long remained on the Bog, drove back the Ottoman parties upon Beſſarabia, and fixed the head quarters of his army at Falczin.

Of the ſiege of Oczakow we find no very intereſting particulars. The capitan pacha, though he appeared in the neighbourhood of this fortreſs, ſeems not to have dared, after the repeated checks he had received, to venture upon any very ſtrong meaſure for its relief. It was however defended with the ſame perſeverance that the Turks had diſplayed in the other parts of the frontier, and the beſiegers and the beſieged were crowned with alternate ſucceſs. Prince Potemkin was repulſed in an endeavour to reduce the garriſon by ſtorm on the firſt of September, and he opened the trenches for a regular ſiege four days after his repulſe. After an obſtinate conteſt, in which the Ruſſians at length became expoſed to the rigours of a winter campaign, the city was taken by ſtorm on the ſeventeenth of December. The aſſault was given in conſequence of the powder magazine of the fortreſs being blown up by a ſhell. Six thouſand Turks were killed, and three thouſand taken priſoners. The loſs of the Ruſſians amounted to four thouſand men.

CHAP.

CHAP. V.

Domeſtic Tranſactions. Royal Indiſpoſition. Meeting of Parliament. Expected Change of Adminiſtration. Right of the two Houſes of Parliament to elect a Regent aſſerted. Mode adopted by them for that Purpoſe.

FEW events of any material importance occur in the domeſtic tranſactions of Britain during the ſummer of the year 1788. A ſmall number of changes in the law offices of the crown took place in conſequence of the office of lord chief juſtice of the king's bench being reſigned on the third of June by the celebrated earl Mansfield. This nobleman had filled his high ſituation for a period of near thirty-two years, during which his deciſions have by ſome perſons been cenſured, and in particular caſes juſtly condemned; but in all which time his unwearied aſſiduity, his penetration and his genius have been the object of univerſal admiration. His immediate ſucceſſor was ſir Lloyd Kenyon late maſter of the rolls, and this promotion gave occaſion to a general remove of law officers, by which Mr. Richard Arden became maſter of the rolls, Mr. Archibald Macdonald attorney general, and Mr. John Scott ſolicitor to the king. The appointment of Mr. Arden occaſioned a public miſunderſtanding and conteſt between the two principal members of adminiſtration, Mr. Pitt and lord Thurlow. Mr. Pitt had lately complimented his colleague in office by preſenting his brother, doctor Thurlow, to the biſhopric of Durham, and appointing to the lord chief juſticeſhip of the king's bench the lawyer whoſe pretenſions were favoured by the lord chancellor. He conceived therefore that upon this occaſion he had a right to conſider his own perſonal friend. Lord Thurlow on the contrary recollected that the maſter of the rolls was the aſſeſſor and deputy of his own office, and conſequently believed that he had a right to ſelect the perſon who ſhould fill that ſtation. This right he aſſerted with that intrepidity and clamour which conſtitute a part of his character; but the cool and inflexible perſeverance of Mr. Pitt was ultimately victorious. A farther miniſterial change of ſome importance was the appointment of the earl of Chatham, brother to Mr. Pitt, on the twelfth of July, to ſucceed lord Howe in the office of firſt lord of the admiralty. We proceed from theſe individual conſiderations to the more direct topics of hiſtory.

In the preceding chapters of our hiſtory, events have been recorded that in the common and received eſtimate are to be regarded as brilliant and honourable to our country. We have ſeen England recovering her weight in the ſcale of nations, that is, we have ſeen her forward upon all occaſions to intrude herſelf upon the concerns of her neighbours, buſied in the preſervation of an imaginary balance that is in no danger of being deſtroyed, and plunging into that chaos of foreign connections, which at the commencement of the preſent reign ſeemed to have been completely and for ever exploded. We ſilenced in Holland the mur-

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murs of men that were presumptuous enough to think they had a right to be free, and we assisted the king of Sweden, by rescuing him from a foreign enemy and lending him the support of our name, to triumph over a prevailing party in his own country. We had been strongly suspected of having kindled the flame of war among the Turks, and we seemed ready, if not effectively to take up arms in their favour, at least by the firmness of our language and the boldness of our countenance to keep their adversaries in awe. This picture undoubtedly forms a striking contrast to the weak, the debilitated and the ruinous situation in which we appeared at the close of the last war. We believe it will not be difficult for the careful enquirer, who shall follow the train of incidents we have successively had occasion to record, to judge how far this specious elevation is to be ascribed to the ability, and how far it depended upon circumstances totally unconnected with the ability of the existing administration.

This flattering and intoxicating prospect threatened to have a sudden and calamitous termination in the close of the year 1788. The health of the sovereign had suffered a gradual decline, a circumstance that was not ascribed to the freedom of indulgence and the softness of luxury, but on the contrary to too severe a regimen, too laborious exercise, too rigid abstemiousness and too short intervals of rest. As a remedy for the symptoms that discovered themselves, the king determined to visit the medical waters of Cheltenham, and accordingly travelled into that part of the kingdom immediately after the prorogation of parliament, and did not return to the metropolis till the eighteenth of August. No benefit answerable to the expectations that had been formed resulted from this excursion. His health was in a precarious state; and on the twenty-second of October symptoms were observed by one of the royal physicians of that alienation of mind, which was afterwards the occasion of so many important and interesting transactions. For some time it was thought proper to observe as much secrecy as possible respecting the nature of the king's indisposition. The retreat of the sovereign at Windsor was favourable to this purpose, and for several days an opinion was entertained by the people in general, that his indisposition was a fever, and that it had risen to so alarming a height as to threaten a speedy dissolution. The real nature of the case however could not long be suppressed. By the structure and practice of the English constitution almost every species of public business is in some manner implicated with the royal prerogatives. The administration of political government in particular was by the present event virtually suspended from its functions; and, notwithstanding the critical situation of Europe, and the very active share we had lately taken in its concerns, it was now deemed impracticable to return any sort of answer to the dispatches of foreign courts or of our own ambassadors. In this situation the most natural expedient was to suffer the two houses of parliament, which stood prorogued to the twentieth of November, to meet at that time, and either adjourn for a short interval, or immediately proceed to discuss the measures it would be proper to adopt at the present crisis. Circular letters were accordingly addressed to the members of the legislature

lature on the fourteenth, ſignifying to them, that the indiſpoſition of the ſovereign rendered it doubtful whether there would be a poſſibility of receiving his commands for the farther prorogation of parliament. In that caſe the two houſes muſt of neceſſity aſſemble, and the attendance of the different members was earneſtly requeſted.

Parliament being aſſembled, the lord chancellor obſerved in the houſe of lords, that the reaſon of their being thus unuſually called together, without the ordinary notice for the diſpatch of buſineſs, aroſe from the ſeverity of the king's indiſpoſition, which had rendered it impoſſible for him to approach the royal perſon in order to receive his commands. Lord Camden remarked, that the cuſtomary practice of giving forty days notice previouſly to the meeting of parliament, was not in his opinion abſolutely neceſſary. There was an expreſs act of parliament, that limited the notice in caſe of treaſon or rebellion to fourteen days; he therefore recommended an adjournment for that term, and at the ſame time moved, that the chancellor, by order of the houſe, ſhould addreſs an official letter to every individual peer. Mr. Pitt ſtated to the houſe of commons, that every authority had been conſulted reſpecting the preſent ſingular ſituation of affairs; but they did not point out either the poſſibility of directing a new prorogation, or enable miniſters to open the ſeſſion of parliament in any regular way. Under theſe circumſtances it would be highly improper for the houſe to proceed to the diſcuſſion of any public buſineſs, and was abſolutely neceſſary to adjourn. He therefore recommended the interval of a fortnight, when, if the king's illneſs ſhould unhappily continue, it would be indiſpenſibly incumbent upon them to enter upon the immediate conſideration of the ſtate of public affairs. Mr. Pitt farther moved a call of the houſe for the fourth of December, and that the ſpeaker be directed to ſend circular letters requiring the attendance of every member on that day.

The nominal miniſters of the ſovereign, by the expedient we have deſcribed, removed in the moſt judicious manner the difficulties, which at firſt preſented themſelves reſpecting the legal aſſembling of the two houſes of parliament; but the queſtions that remained were more eſſential in themſelves, and more likely to intereſt the paſſions of mankind. The uniform tenour of all precedents afforded by the hiſtory of England, were in favour of a protectorate or regency, under which the whole or a conſiderable part of the political power ſhould be confided to the next heir to the crown, or to the adult of the royal family moſt nearly related to the king. A circumſtance that rendered this conſideration more material upon the preſent occaſion was, that the prince of Wales entertained an avowed partiality for the political connection that had lately been inſtrumental in obtaining for him the diſcharge of his debts and an increaſe of his annual income, as well as ſome perſonal reſentment to the miniſters now in poſſeſſion of office. Accordingly, ſoon after the indiſpoſition of the king had been aſcertained, the prince diſpatched an expreſs to Mr. Fox, who was at that time in Italy, requeſting his immediate preſence to aſſiſt him in forming an adminiſtration. Mr. Fox arrived in London on the twenty-fourth of November, and the

rapidity with which he travelled had been ſuch as to occaſion an indiſpoſition, which for ſome weeks had an alarming appearance. Lord Thurlow aſſented to become a member of the propoſed adminiſtration, and the principal offices of ſtate were ſaid to be thus arranged. The duke of Portland to be firſt lord of the treaſury; lord John Cavendiſh to be chancellor of the exchequer; Mr. Fox and lord viſcount Stormont to be ſecretaries of ſtate; the earl of Sandwich firſt lord of the admiralty; lord Loughborough lord high chancellor; lord Thurlow lord preſident of the council; the earl of Carliſle lord privy ſeal; earl Spencer lord lieutenant of Ireland; Mr. Burke paymaſter of the forces; Mr. Sheridan treaſurer of the navy and preſident of the board of Eaſt India controul; Mr. Thomas Erſkine attorney general; and colonel Fitzpatrick ſecretary at war.

The preſent miniſters were willing to perpetuate themſelves in office, and probably conceived, as the duration of the king's illneſs was uncertain, and he might ſoon be able to reſume the reins of government, that it was for the intereſt of the country at large, and, as they took care to add, would conduce to the ſatisfaction of the ſovereign, that as few changes as poſſible ſhould take place in the interval. There were three modes of proceeding that might be adopted in the preſent inſtance, and three forms of executive government that might be employed for the preſent temporary purpoſe. When king George the Firſt and king George the Second viſited their dominions in Hanover, with the expectation of a ſpeedy return, and the power of directing while at a diſtance the moſt eſſential concerns of the crown, they had frequently appointed a council of regency conſiſting of the principal members of the exiſting adminiſtration. Parliament therefore might either be called upon to nominate ſuch a council, or they might conſtitute the Prince of Wales regent, at the ſame time declaring that none of his proceedings ſhould be valid unleſs approved by a council ſo appointed; or they might conſtitute the prince ſole regent, but under ſuch limitations and reſtrictions, as ſhould be calculated to ſuperſede as much as poſſible all important changes, and to prevent him from the adoption of any deciſive meaſures.

Theſe three projects are ſuppoſed all of them to have paſſed ſucceſſively under the contemplation of miniſters. The two firſt were rejected as untenable; the moſt obvious objection againſt the laſt, was that the government of England was a limited monarchy. It is ſuppoſed to have been the project of its inſtitutors, to reſerve as many privileges and immunities as poſſible to the people at large, and to grant no other powers and prerogatives to the monarch than were abſolutely neceſſary to the conducting with dignity and firmneſs the executive adminiſtration. If the prerogative of the king was found to be too extenſive, it ought not merely to be taken away from the regent, but for ever aboliſhed. If it were preciſely what the general welfare required, it ought to exiſt as completely under a regency as at any other time. It was ſaid that care ought to be taken to prevent the future inclinations and deſigns of the monarch from being invaded. But the prerogatives of the king were not granted him for his own gratification;

gratification; they were truſts for the people: and, if thoſe truſts were to be exerciſed at all, the conſequence ſeemed to be inevitable, that they were to be exerciſed with uniformity and conſtancy. The legiſlature however, in their ſubſequent tranſactions, ſeem to have been rather influenced by partiality and compaſſion for the monarch, than by conſiderations of immutable truth and univerſal happineſs.

Another miſtake they committed appears to have been not leſs important. The ſame ſtroke, which had deprived the country of its ſovereign, had in reality put an end to the offices and ſituation of miniſters. They were at preſent miniſters of courteſy, and had in propriety no greater power than the moſt private and undigniſied member of the legiſlature. But it is impoſſible not to remark upon this occaſion the effect of reputation and popularity. Mr. Pitt and his colleagues in office were in poſſeſſion of the public favour in a degree in which perhaps no miniſters in the Britiſh annals ever enjoyed it for ſo long a period of time. Upon Mr. Fox and his aſſociates remained a part of that odium which the coalition and the India bill had originally excited. The prince of Wales himſelf was ſtill leſs popular. Diſſipation and irregularity of conduct, though not to be claſſed among the vices of the heart, ſeem to be leſs venial in the eſtimate of the maſs of mankind than almoſt any qualities that can be named. A rumour had been ſpread of his having married a lady of the Roman catholic religion, and, though this rumour had been contradicted from the higheſt authority, it ſeems ſtill to have been generally believed. Perhaps few perſons were ſeriouſly apprehenſive of an endeavour to aboliſh the eſtabliſhed proteſtant religion; but it had been ſaid, that the fact itſelf amounted by ſtatute to a direct forfeiture of all right to the crown; and it was remarked, that, if this ſtatute were not executed, yet the having wantonly trifled in ſo expreſs an inſtance with the law of the land, gave us but little hopes of future wiſdom and prudence and right conduct in the perſon who had ſo glaringly offended. Thus the unpopularity of one party, and the elevated reputation of the other, led a majority of both houſes of parliament to pay leſs attention to general and conſtitutional principles than under other circumſtances might have been expected. The project of Mr. Pitt bore a ſtriking reſemblance to the conduct which he had a few years before condemned in Mr. Fox. The prerogatives, that were refuſed to the prince of Wales and placed in other hands, formed a power, that would be poſſeſſed by miniſters when out of office, and would be a check and balance as it were to counteract the imperfect authority, which it was intended to leave in the hands of the actual government.

Upon the re-aſſembling of parliament on the fourth of December, a report of the board of privy council, containing an examination of the royal phyſicians, was preſented to the two houſes by lord Camden and Mr. Pitt; and it was ſuggeſted, that, when the delicacy of the ſubject and the dignity of the perſon in queſtion were conſidered, parliament would probably perceive the propriety of acting upon this report, rather than of demanding that more direct and ample information to which in ſtrictneſs they were entitled. In the mean time doubts were ſuggeſted by Mr. Vyner, Mr. Fox and Mr. Burke, whether parliament could, conſiſtently

ently with its privileges and its momentous ſituation, diſpenſe with that ſort of evidence upon which they were accuſtomed to proceed. Theſe doubts had the appearance of being adopted by a majority of the houſe of commons, and accordingly adminiſtration changed its original deſign, and it was reſolved on the eighth, that each houſe ſhould appoint a committee of its own members to examine and report the ſentiments of the royal phyſicians. In purſuance of the uſual mode of procedure in both houſes, the committee of the houſe of commons was named on the ſame day, and the committee of the houſe of lords on the day following. The number ſelected in each houſe was twenty-one, and to the perſons poſſeſſing the principal offices in government were added in the houſe of lords the duke of Norfolk, the duke of Portland, the earl of Derby, the earl of Carliſle, earl Fitzwilliam, viſcount Stormont, and lord Loughborough; and in the houſe of commons Mr. Fox, Mr. Sheridan, and other leading members of oppoſition.

The report of the committee was laid upon the table of the houſe of commons on the tenth, when a farther propoſition was moved by Mr. Pitt, for the appointment of a committee to examine and report precedents of caſes, in which the perſonal exerciſe of the royal authority had been prevented or interrupted by infancy, ſickneſs, infirmity, or any other cauſe. Mr. Fox embraced this opportunity of bringing forward an opinion, that was of conſiderable conſequence to the cauſe of the prince of Wales, and which, if admitted, would inſtantly have put an end to thoſe precautions and limitations upon the regency, which it was in the contemplation of miniſters to ſuggeſt. He ſaid, that he was not anxious to prevent the adoption of the preſent motion; but he thought it incumbent upon him to remark, that it was the duty of the two houſes to loſe no time in providing for the preſent exigency. All that was requiſite previouſly to their ultimate deciſion, he conceived had been obtained by the report juſt laid upon their table. By that report they had aſcertained that the king was at preſent incapable of the executive government; and it was his firm opinion, that the prince of Wales had as clear and expreſs a right to aſſume the reins and exerciſe the powers of ſovereignty during the continuance of the preſent incapacity, as if his father were actually dead. He did not however mean that the prince of Wales could enter upon this exerciſe at his own pleaſure, or was intitled to judge of the circumſtances that cauſed it to be requiſite. His right was perfect and entire, but the two houſes of parliament, as the organs of the nation, were alone qualified to pronounce when he ought to take poſſeſſion of his right. He commended the prince of Wales for not bringing forward his claim himſelf, and chooſing rather with patient deference to wait the deciſion of parliament; adding, that his forbearance and moderation were to be imputed to his having been bred in the principles which had placed his family on the throne, and to his known veneration for thoſe principles as the fundamentals of our conſtitution. Mr. Fox obſerved with reſpect to precedents, that there were notoriouſly none that applied to the preſent inſtance, and that he could therefore conceive of no juſt and adequate reaſon for the propoſed delay.

Mr. Pitt never diſplayed more of that

that ſort of ingenuity and preſence of mind, that enables us to take advantage of all openings in our adverſary's argument, than upon this occaſion. In the character of firſt miniſter of the ſovereign, he had frequently thought it neceſſary to be the determined advocate of prerogative; but he had here gained an opportunity of wiping away this ſhade upon the luſtre of his reputation, of aſſerting in the boldeſt manner the doctrines of liberty and privilege, and retorting upon his opponents thoſe charges of toryiſm and arbitrary power which had ſo frequently been brought againſt himſelf. He readily diſcovered, that he had an aſſembly to addreſs that was perfectly diſpoſed to adopt the cry he ſhould raiſe; and he did not part with the propoſition till he had turned it in every poſſible way, and derived from it all the advantageous conſequences that it could be made to produce.

The queſtion itſelf is of ſo abſtract and refined a nature, that it may be argued with great plauſibility on either ſide that an ingenious reaſoner might find it his intereſt to adopt. It is unqueſtionably certain, that if we would ſpeak accurately, princes have no other rights than thoſe which are equally poſſeſſed by every member of the community. Every man is intitled to the ſecurity of his perſon, to have a fair and equitable conſtruction put upon his conduct, and to the deriving benefit and advantage from the performance of ſuch actions as may tend to the welfare of others. There is indeed one particular in which monarchs fall ſhort of their ſubjects, as they can ſcarcely with propriety be conceived to be the poſſeſſors of private property. For all the reſt, the prerogatives they are ſuppoſed to poſſeſs, and the order of ſucceſſion that may have been eſtabliſhed in the community, theſe are truſts and regulations provided for the good of the whole, and not rights conferred for the gratification of the individual. But then, if princes have no right to their crowns, let us conſider what are the rights or diſcretion veſted in a legiſlative aſſembly. Abſolutely none. There is one ſingle line of conduct which it becomes them to purſue, and that only have they a right to adopt. If they have a right to do the contrary, then there are two oppoſite rights, and theſe muſt neceſſarily be deſtructive of each other. If they have a right to do the contrary, they have then a right, a right divine, if you pleaſe, of doing wrong, which is preciſely the propoſition the moſt palpably falſe that ever was aſſerted. When it was remarked, and juſtly remarked, that kings had no rights, it ought to have been added, that legiſlative aſſemblies are exactly in the ſame ſituation. If the Engliſh conſtitution be a wiſe one, and the executive government ought under certain given circumſtances to be veſted in one man whom we call a king, it ought under other given circumſtances to be veſted in one man whom we call a regent, and parliament have no right or diſcretion to ſuperſede this concluſion. If on the other hand we deſcend from this high, abſtract, and metaphyſical language, and ſay, becauſe the benefit of the people is ſuppoſed to require it, that the king has a right to the crown, we are alſo bound to ſay, if we can prove that the benefit of the people requires it, that the prince of Wales has a right to the regency.

We have mentioned the obvious principles upon which Mr. Pitt replied

plied to the reaſonings of Mr. Fox. Feeling the ground upon which he ſtood, he did not heſitate to affirm, that for any man to aſſert ſuch a right in the prince of Wales, otherwiſe than as it was voluntarily conferred upon him by the two houſes of parliament, was little leſs than treaſon to the conſtitution of his country; adding, that unleſs by their election he had no more right, ſpeaking of ſtrict right, to aſſume the government, than any other individual ſubject in England. He deſired, that every man in that houſe, and every man in the nation, would conſider, that on their proceedings depended, as well the exiſtence of the conſtitution, as the intereſt and honour of a ſovereign who was deſervedly the idol of his people. Mr. Burke animadverted upon the ſtrong and invidious terms that had been employed by Mr. Pitt, when he had accuſed his opponents of treaſon, a language, that was deſtructive of the freedom of debate, and the privilege of parliament; and he proceeded to ſpeak with warmth and indignation of the ſentiments of the miniſter, obſerving that he had had the preſumption to make himſelf the competitor of the prince of Wales. The motion for a committee of precedents was carried without a diviſion.

A motion for a ſimilar committee was offered in the houſe of lords on the day following by lord Camden; and, as it was determined to let ſlip no opportunity of animadverting upon the doctrine of Mr. Fox, it was ſpecifically alluded to by this nobleman in the ſpeech with which he introduced his motion. Thus challenged, the members of oppoſition in the houſe of lords thought it neceſſary to vindicate his ſentiments. Lord Loughborough obſerved, that there was an act of king Charles the Second, by which it was expreſsly declared, that no law could in any caſe be made but by the authority of the three branches of the legiſlature, and that every man aſſerting the contrary, ſhould be liable to the penalties of treaſon. Could therefore any thing be more abſurd than to ſay, that the two houſes, that could not even make a turnpike act, might diſpoſe by their own authority of the executive government? There were only two caſes in which the throne could become vacant, and the interference of the two houſes of parliament be requiſite to fill it; the one, a total ſubverſion of the government by a breach of the original compact, as in the caſe of an abdication of the crown; the other, when the royal line became extinct, and the king at his deceaſe left no heir. It had been declared that the prince of Wales had no more right than any private ſubject. Could this be true? Was the prince of Wales a common ſubject? Did not the law, as expounded by lord Coke, deſcribe him to be one and the ſame perſon with the king? Was it not equally high treaſon to compaſs or imagine the death either of the one or the other? It happened that at this time the two houſes were legally aſſembled under the king's writs; but, if the caſe had been otherwiſe, it would ſurely have been warrantable for the prince of Wales, as heir apparent, to have iſſued writs, and called a parliament. Lord Loughborough was far from meaning, that the prince could violently ruſh into the ſovereignty, but that, upon the authentic notification of the king's incapacity to the two houſes of parliament, the prince ought of right to be inveſted with the royal authority. He begged leave to remind his hearers that there was a neighbouring kingdom that ſtood

connected with us, and acknowledged allegiance to the British crown. If the regency were declared to be elective and not hereditary, how could we be sure that they would not choose a regent of their own, and thus lead to endless confusion and embarrassment? Lord Stormont supported the principles of lord Loughborough, adducing a similar argument from the act of union; and concluded with recommending an immediate address to the prince of Wales intreating him to assume the exercise of the royal authority.

Lord Thurlow expressed extreme concern, that, in the progress of a business so peculiarly critical, the slightest appearance of a difference of opinion or of unpleasant altercation should have arisen. Had they waited for the ultimate question, there would not probably have been found much disagreement on any side, and consequently much of the present discussion might have been spared. He observed, that nothing he had yet heard gave satisfaction to his mind, and he therefore wished, previously to the declaration of his opinion, to have the full advantage of every precedent and every analogy that could be found. He added however, that the doctrine maintained by lord Loughborough was perfectly new to him, and that much stress could not surely be laid upon a metaphorical expression, such as had been cited from lord Coke. At the same time he commended that nobleman for having spoken of a prince of Wales in the abstract, without affecting to rest any part of his argument on the personal virtues of the present heir apparent, who should always have his applause, when the expression of it would not be an act of impertinence.

Mr. Fox on the following day in the house of commons spoke with considerable severity of the manner, in which his opinion had been introduced in debate in the other house by lord Camden. Upon this occasion he thought proper to enter into a farther explanation of his sentiments. In the first place he declared, that in what he had said he had merely delivered his private judgment, and by no means spoken from the authority of the prince of Wales. With respect to the doctrine itself, the prince in his conception had the right, but the adjudication of that right was in the two houses of parliament. Thus the election of representatives to that house was in their constituents at large, but in all questions of undue election the house of commons adjudicated the right of the different pretenders. He should therefore have thought that the prince of Wales might with propriety, if he had thought proper, have sent a message to either or both houses of parliament, stating his claim, and calling upon them to pronounce upon it. Mr. Fox acknowledged, that more difference of opinion had prevailed upon the subject than he could have expected; adding that he was not solicitous about terms, and whether the prince of Wales possessed an inherent right or an irresistible claim, provided the sole administration of the government, with the unlimited exercise of all the regal functions, were vested in him. Of this he had not altogether lost the hope, and he called upon Mr. Pitt to declare the system he intended to pursue, as a point of more consequence than the abstract questions about which they had hitherto been employed.

Mr. Pitt declared, that the question that had been started respecting the rights of parliament, was of much greater magnitude and importance than those which related to the pre-

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ſent exigency, and he hoped there would be an unanimous concurrence of opinion that it was impoſſible to diſmiſs the queſtion of right, without its being fully diſcuſſed and decided. It was a queſtion that ſhook the foundation of the conſtitution, and upon which all that was dear to us as Britons depended. It was a queſtion that involved in it the protection and ſecurity of our liberties, and the ſafety of the ſtate. Mr. Pitt granted, that, if there were no parliament in exiſtence, the heir apparent, in concert with other perſons in high ſituation, might have iſſued writs and convened the legiſlature. Such a proceeding would be juſtified by the neceſſity of the caſe; but that it would be a legal and formal ſummons he muſt abſolutely deny. With reſpect to the meaſures which it might be now neceſſary to adopt, he was willing to acknowledge, that, as a matter of diſcretion and on the ground of expediency, it was highly deſirable that whatever part of the regal power was exerciſed at all, ſhould be veſted in a ſingle perſon, and that perſon the prince of Wales. He alſo thought it moſt conſtitutional, and moſt conducive to the public welfare, that the regent ſhould exerciſe his authority, unfettered by any permanent council, and with the free choice of his political ſervants. He could not at this moment pronounce what part of the royal authority ought to be given and what withheld; but he had no objection to declare, that whatever was requiſite for vigour and diſpatch ought to be given, and that on the contrary whatever might by poſſibility be employed ſo as to embarraſs the king when he ſhould aſſume his power ought to be withheld. Mr. Sheridan expoſtulated upon the impropriety and danger of bringing to a vote the abſtract right of the prince of Wales, and urged Mr. Pitt to reflect maturely before he provoked by the raſhneſs of his meaſures that claim to be aſſerted, which had not yet been preferred. The warning which was thus conveyed Mr. Pitt regarded with perfect indifference.

The day appointed for the houſe of commons to reſolve itſelf into a committee on the ſtate of the nation was the ſixteenth, and on the preceding day an ultimate attempt was made by lord Fitzwilliam and others in the houſe of lords to deprecate the diſcuſſion of this delicate topic. The duke of York in particular expreſſed his wiſhes that the queſtion might be waved. No claim of right had in fact been advanced by the prince of Wales, and he was confident that his brother too well underſtood the ſacred principles which ſeated the houſe of Brunſwic upon the throne, ever to aſſume or exerciſe any power, be his claim what it might, that was not derived from the will of the people expreſſed by their repreſentatives. The duke of Glouceſter confirmed the declaration of the duke of York. Lord Thurlow ſpoke with great energy of his ſentiments of affection towards the king. Nothing could be more diſgraceful than to deſert the ſovereign in his preſent diſtreſſed and helpleſs ſituation. His own debt of gratitude for the favours conferred on him was ample, and, when he forgot that debt, might God forget him! He beſtowed his applauſe upon the language of the duke of York, and declared that no man could be more determined than himſelf to avoid frivolous and unneceſſary deciſions. Queſtions of right were generally invidious,

vidious, and he was willing to bind himself by any words however strong, not to vote for any question that had not the straitest direction to the public good. He must however observe, that it would be in the power of any member of that house to provoke discussions, the avoiding which appeared to be so generally and anxiously desired. He must therefore recommend discretion, as that, without which unanimity could not possibly be obtained.

The two leading resolutions proposed by Mr. Pitt in the committee upon the state of the nation were entirely of a declaratory nature, the first affirming that the personal exercise of the royal authority was interrupted, and the second that it was the duty of the two houses of parliament to provide the means of supplying that defect. Mr. Pitt acknowledged, that in his conception any abstract or theoretical question would be wholly unnecessary, and the discussion of it altogether unproductive of utility and advantage. But he denied that the question of right which he now offered to the house of commons was of that nature. It was on the contrary an enquiry that stood in the way of all their subsequent proceedings. They were free neither to deliberate nor decide, while the doubt of an existing right hung over their heads; they could not speak intelligibly or to any purpose, till they knew their proper character, and whether they were exercising their own privileges for the safety of the crown and the welfare of the people, or were usurping that which had never belonged to them. Mr. Pitt asserted the utility of the report of the committee, and entered into an investigation of the precedents that had been adduced. They fell under the heads of infancy, absence and indisposition. In the minorities of king Edward the Third and king Richard the Second, parliament, whether wisely or weakly was not now the question, had appointed councils of regency to exercise the royal authority. The third instance occurred in the infancy of king Henry the Sixth. The duke of Gloucester, the king's uncle, had at that time called together the parliament, one of the first of whose measures was to ratify the manner in which they had been convoked, not considering the sanction of the duke as a sufficient authority. The same nobleman had gone farther; he had claimed the regency, and applied to parliament to recognize his right. What was the answer? They asserted, that neither his birth nor the will of the late monarch gave him any power to exercise the royal authority. Having thus established their own privileges, they then declared the duke of Gloucester himself protector, and confided to him the person of their infant sovereign. Here then was an instance in which the claim of right had been directly advanced, and explicitly decided on by the authority of parliament. The next sort of precedents were those that were founded in the king's absence in foreign realms. These cases his adversaries had asserted to be clearly in their favour, and they appealed in a triumphant tone to the regencies of Lionel duke of Clarence and of Edward the Black Prince when a minor. Granting these cases to be as decisive as the advocate of the present novel doctrine could reasonably expect, what did they decide? Clearly the truth and certainty of the present resolutions. If right to represent the king exist-

in the heir apparent, it must be a perfect and entire right, a right that admitted of neither mode nor limitation. If any thing short of the whole power were given, it would manifestly fall short of the extent of the claim, and consequently be an acknowledgment that no such claim existed. Mr. Pitt ventured to assert, that the powers vested in the custos regni had always been less than those of the king. He called upon his hearers to advert to the ancient records, and concluded, that, because the power of bestowing benefices for instance had occasionally been given, their prerogatives had always been subject to some limitation. In modern times the appointment of lords justices had been the usual resource, and that frequently when a prince of full age was resident in England. There was one other precedent that remained, where the exercise of royalty had been interrupted by indisposition; and this appeared to him to be more a case in point than any of the rest. The precedent to which he alluded was that of the protectorate of the duke of York in the reign of king Henry the Sixth. The heir apparent had indeed at that time been a minor, but this variation in the record was fully supplied by the reversionary patent that parliament had directed to be issued, granting the regency to the prince of Wales when he should attain full age, with precisely the same powers as those of the duke of York, that is, with such limitations and restrictions as amounted to a positive denial of his hereditary right. From all these examples Mr. Pitt concluded, that the whole stream of history was in his favour, and that the house could not refuse the resolutions he offered, in consistency with precedent and the forms of the constitution. They were now called upon to declare their inherent rights; and, if they failed to do it fully and explicitly, their conduct would undoubtedly be ascribed to motives of personal interest, rather than a regard to the honour and safety of the crown, and an attention to the true interests of their country. He remarked, that the claim of right had originally been asserted by Mr. Fox in much stronger and more elevated terms than those which it was now thought prudent to employ; and he had no doubt that it was the sense of the country at large, that no such right had the shadow of existence.

Mr. Fox apologized from indisposition for not entering methodically into a farther justification of his opinion, respecting which indeed he had argued enough upon former occasions. Any man however would have imagined, from the weakness of the arguments advanced on the other side, that those who adduced them, had wished to provoke him to the most unqualified assertion of the doctrine he had suggested. From the extreme futility of their reasonings, from the glaring absurdity of their inferences, the false premises they had laid down, and the irrelevant and inapplicable precedents upon which they pretended to rely, they perhaps thought that they held out a temptation so strong, that flesh and blood could not withstand it. Could the minister and his friends suppose that the house would think them serious in supporting their system by the series of precedents that was now offered? How miserable must be that system the prominent features of which were so highly disgraceful! Was the practice of the present times, times so enlightened,

and in which the principles of the conſtitution were ſo well underſtood, to be grounded on precedents drawn from the dark and barbarous period of king Henry the Sixth? Were the rights of the houſe of commons in one of the moſt difficult moments that had ever occurred, to be maintained and vindicated by an example, in which the houſe of lords had uſurped an excluſive authority, and in which the rights of the commons were ſo ill underſtood, that its ſpeaker was at that very moment in priſon on a commitment of the houſe of lords? Mr. Fox called upon his hearers to reflect upon the cataſtrophe of that period, the infamous tranſactions of which were choſen for the model of that day's proceedings. That period had immediately led to the wars of the houſes of Lancaſter and York, and had introduced thoſe diſmal ſcenes of anarchy, confuſion, bloodſhed and tyranny, that were a diſgrace to the annals of England, and had reduced the kingdom to unparalleled diſtreſs. With reſpect to the other precedents, there was not one of them that related to the caſe of a prince of Wales arrived at full age. If however they tended to prove any thing, it was the prince's right. In the reign of Edward the Third the Black Prince at only thirteen years of age was declared regent, and afterwards, during the abſence of Edward and his ſon, the appointment had fallen on the next brother, the duke of Clarence. In the reign of Henry the Sixth the right of the prince of Wales, though only a year old, was fully and explicitly recognized. But, overlooking all theſe diſtant examples, Mr. Fox was perfectly of opinion that all precedents prior to the revolution were foreign to the purpoſe, becauſe at the revolution only civil liberty was clearly defined, and the rights of the different branches of the legiſlature aſcertained. It was, Mr. Fox contended, undeniably evident, that the act of ſettlement muſt be altogether overlooked, if the prince of Wales were paſſed over, and the doctrine of Mr. Pitt eſtabliſhed. The act of ſettlement might clearly be defeated, and the ſucceſſion to the crown might be altered, if the regency were veſted in any other hands: and ſuch had indeed been actually the caſe in the miniſter's favourite precedent, that of the protectorate of Richard duke of York.

Mr. Fox aſſerted, that the plan of Mr. Pitt would radically alter the government, and overturn the conſtitution. The right to make laws reſted in the entire legiſlature, and not in the concurrence of any two of its branches. The conſtitution ſuppoſed each of its three branches to be independent of the other and actually hoſtile; and, if that principle were once given up, there was an end of our political freedom. The ſafety of the whole depended, not upon the patriotiſm of any one branch of the legiſlature, but rather on the ſeparate intereſts of the three, prone to the extenſion of their individual power, and concurring through different views to the benefit of the community. Any man familiar with the theory of the conſtitution would naturally think, and, if he were queſtioned, readily anſwer, that the monarchy was hereditary; but, if the doctrine of that day prevailed, the anſwer muſt be: "I cannot tell; aſk his majeſty's phyſicians. When the king of England is in health the monarchy is hereditary; but when he is ill, and incapable of exerciſing

exercising the sovereign authority, it is then elective." A subtle and politic lawyer might indeed be found, who would alledge, as the solicitor general, sir Archibald Macdonald, had done, that the monarchy, it was allowed, must be hereditary, but the executive power might be elective. The political capacity it seemed of the king was immutable, but his natural capacity was liable to variations. Thus an hereditary monarch existed stripped of the regal functions, while the person who occupied his place in the constitution, was liable to be elected and modified by the other branches of the legislature. The legal metaphysics, that thus distinguished between the crown and its functions, were to him unintelligible. The investigators should be schoolmen and not statesmen, if a question, that so deeply involved the existence of the constitution, were to be thus discussed. But he would put an end to the argument at once by asking, where was that famous dictum to be found, by which the crown was guarded with such inviolable sanctity, while its powers were left to the mercy of every assailant?

Mr. Fox ridiculed the subtlety of Mr. Pitt's reasonings that the prince of Wales had no more right than he had, at the same time that he confessed that parliament was not at liberty to think of any other regent; and all this for the paltry triumph of a vote over a political antagonist, and to insult a prince, whose favour he was conscious he had not deserved. For himself he had ever made it his pride to combat with the crown in the plenitude of its power and the fulness of its authority. He wished not to trample upon its rights, while it lay extended at his feet, deprived of its functions and incapable of resistance. Let the minister pride himself on a victory obtained against a defenceless foe; let him boast of a triumph, where no battle had been fought, and no glory could be obtained; let him take advantage of the calamities of human nature, and, like the unfeeling lord of a manor, riot in the riches to be acquired by shipwrecks, by rigorously asserting a claim to the waifs, estrays, deodands, and all the accumulated profit of the various accidents which misfortune could throw into his power; let it never be his boast to have gained such victories, obtained such triumphs, or availed himself of wealth so acquired. Mr. Fox was ready to admit that Mr. Pitt's administration had been in some respects intitled to praise. The whole conduct of the Dutch transaction in particular was wise and vigorous, laudable in its design and effectual in its execution. Of his other measures he certainly entertained a very different opinion. The minister however appeared to have been so long in the possession of power, that he could not endure to part with it. He had experienced the entire favour of the crown and enjoyed the advantage of exerting all its prerogatives; and, finding the whole not too much for the successful administration of government, he had determined to cripple his successors, to deprive them of the advantages which he had possessed, and circumscribe their power of being useful to their country; as if he dreaded that their prosperity would cast a shade upon his fame. With regard to Mr. Pitt's motives he was unable to assign them; but, if there were an ambitious man in that house who desired to drive the empire into confusion, his conduct, he conceived, would

be exactly that which the miniſter purſued. Mr. Fox on his part had nothing to wiſh for, but that his hearers would faithfully employ their vigilance and not vote the reſolutions without being perfectly aware of their tendency.

Mr. Pitt replied in an animated manner to the animadverſions of Mr. Fox. He ſtyled the attack that had been made upon him unfounded, arrogant and preſumptuous. Whether to him belonged the character of miſchievous ambition, that would ſacrifice the principles of the conſtitution to the deſire of power, he muſt leave to the houſe and the country to determine. They would decide whether in the preſent unfortunate criſis, any conſideration that affected his own perſonal ſituation, or any management for the ſake of preſerving power, appeared to have the principal ſhare in his meaſures. As to his being conſcious that he did not deſerve the favour of the prince, he could only ſay, that he knew but of one way in which he or any man could deſerve it, by having uniformly endeavoured in a public ſituation to do his duty to the king his father and the country at large. If in thus endeavouring to deſerve the confidence of the prince it ſhould appear that he had in fact loſt it, he ſhould indeed regret the circumſtance, but he could boldly ſay that it was impoſſible for him ever to repent of it. Mr. Fox had thought proper to announce himſelf and his friends as ſucceſſors to the preſent adminiſtration. He did not know upon what authority this declaration was made; but he thought the houſe and the country were obliged to him for this ſeaſonable warning of what they had to expect. It was well known to be the expreſs ſyſtem of Mr, Fox, to aim at the power, through the ſtrength of a party, of nominating the miniſters of the crown. This was the ſtrongeſt additional reaſon, if any were wanting, why the houſe ſhould carefully conſider the extent of the powers they granted, and ſeriouſly reflect before they made themſelves acceſſary to the creating a permanent weight and influence in the hands of a party; which would be dangerous to the juſt rights of the crown, when the moment ſhould arrive, ſo much to be wiſhed and perhaps ſo ſoon to be expected, in which the king ſhould reſume the exerciſe of his conſtitutional authority. The reſolution was farther oppoſed by Mr. Baſtard and Mr. Powys, and ſupported by Mr. Marſham, Mr. Groſvenor, and the ſpeaker, the former entering into its expreſs vindication, and the two latter voting on the ſide of Mr. Pitt. The houſe having divided, the numbers appeared, ayes 268, noes 204.

The third reſolution, which was intended by Mr. Pitt to complete the preſent proceeding, was ſtated to the houſe on the ſame day, but was not regularly debated till the twenty-ſecond. Its tenour was to declare, that it was neceſſary, for the purpoſe of ſupplying the preſent defect, and maintaining entire the conſtitutional authority of the king, that the two houſes ſhould determine on the means by which the royal aſſent might be given to the bill, which they might adopt for conſtituting a regency. The object of this propoſition was ſufficiently obvious. Adminiſtration had determined not to confide the regency to the prince of Wales but with certain limitations and reſtrictions, and they conceived it incumbent upon them to fix thoſe reſtrictions in the preſent maimed and defective ſtate of the legiſlature. They

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were at present secure of a parliamentary majority, and they did not choose to trust to the influence that might be produced upon that majority by an intermediate change of administration. Indeed the resolution of right had a meaning and tendency perfectly similar to the resolution that followed it. All parties were agreed, that the prince of Wales was the proper person to be nominated sole regent, and that, if parliament possessed a discretion, it would be unwise and unsafe for them to exercise it for any other than this individual purpose. The utility of deciding the right could only be to enable parliament to follow up that decision with certain restrictions; and, if restrictions had not been intended, if it had been intended to confide the whole royal authority, the decision of the right was nugatory and unmeaning. It was true, strictly speaking, that the prince had no right to the regency, and it was true that his father had no right to the crown; but in both instances, and equally in both instances, the welfare of the public was supposed to require, that the crown should be confided to the male representative of the house of Brunswic, and the regency, when a regency was necessary, to the next heir in immediate succession. The term right in each case expresses a falshood and is productive of error, and it would undoubtedly be highly salutary that the language of politics should be reduced to the severe and accurate expression of truth. But the term right seems to be in no respect more innocent and defensible in one case than it is in the other. With respect to the matter of the third resolution, its object was to authorize a sort of extravagant and incredible fiction, no example of which, at least for several centuries, had occurred, and which was totally unnecessary to the purposes intended by ministry. Their apprehensions respecting the fluctuating state of the present majority were natural and perhaps just: but the most simple and dignified mode of proceeding in that case, if limitations were necessary, was to have passed a bill through the established forms, and then at once to have presented the regency to the prince of Wales and this bill for his assent. They would thus have secured the object that really engaged their anxiety, the acceptance and success of the bill, and might have been equally confident of the assent of the prince of Wales as regent being the inevitable consequence.

Lord North reasoned with considerable acuteness upon the project suggested in the third resolution. The object professedly in contemplation was to direct, by a vote of the two houses, the lord chancellor to affix the great seal to a commission, authorising certain persons to declare the royal assent on the part of the king. But how were they to be informed of the royal pleasure? This was clearly impossible. A person was to be set up without power or discretion, and this pageant, this fictitious being was to give the force of a law to the decisions of the two houses. Was it ever before heard of, that there could be a power of giving assent, without the power of refusing that assent? Would any man seriously maintain that the third estate, thus conjured up, was really distinct from the other two? It was a maxim of law as well as of reason, Qui facit per alium facit per se. The truth was, and it was impossible to controvert it, that the whole power proposed to be exercised was the proper and individual act of the lords

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and commons, unparticipated by any other eſtate or party in the world.

Mr. Fox earneſtly preſſed for an immediate addreſs to the prince of Wales. He entered into a diſcuſſion of the precedent of the revolution, and obſerved, that the mode in which the two houſes had proceeded to elect king William, was a proper model for their conduct in the preſent inſtance. King William, with all his great and glorious qualities, certainly did not poſſeſs ſuch a knowledge of our conſtitution, as to have had any preference as to the manner in which the crown ſhould be conferred upon him. Whether it came to him by a declaration of the two houſes, by addreſs, or by an act paſſed with the affectation of legal forms, was a circumſtance that he would have regarded with perfect indifference, and reſpecting which of conſequence the convention acted upon their own judgment. And what was the proceeding they adopted? They might have ordered a new great ſeal to be made; they might have erected a pageant, and, aſſuming the empty form without the reality or eſſence of a parliament, have committed an inſulting fraud, and in mere mockery of legiſlation have paſſed an impotent act, conveying to king William the crown. But knowing and feeling the powers poſſeſſed by the two houſes, and poſſeſſed by the legiſlature, knowing that the two houſes could act only by reſolution and addreſs, and the legiſlature only by ſtatute and bill, they purſued the line of conduct dictated by the conſtitution. Mr. Fox readily admitted, that, by addreſſing the prince of Wales to take upon him the exerciſe of royal authority, they would do an informal act: to make the chancellor put the great ſeal to a commiſſion was alſo informal. Let the two acts be examined. Do the firſt, and the prince inſtantly holds the parliament, the legiſlature is complete, and the informal act is made a law. Do the other, and not a ſtep is gained, ſince this in its very nature was unconſtitutional and inefficient. Miniſters propoſed one means; their opponents another. The propoſition of the latter inſtantly reproduced legiſlature; that of the former a monſter unknown to the conſtitution. The former choſe an inconvenient regent for the purpoſe of getting at the proper one; the latter arrived at the proper one at once. The former did that by a fraud or fiction, which the latter effected without exceeding the real functions of the two houſes of parliament.

Mr. Pitt defended the project he had offered to the houſe from the charges of being an extravagant fiction and a legal forgery. If ſuch were the genuine deſcription of every act done in the name and without the knowledge of the king, how was the regent to proceed? Was he to act in his own name or in that of the ſovereign? In his own name he could not act without dethroning the king; and in the king's name he could not act without recourſe to this reprobated fiction. It was this fiction that governed the proceedings of the courts of juſtice, that gave protection to our properties and our rights, and that reſulted from the very nature of an hereditary monarchy. It ſuppoſed the ſame power to paſs inſtantly in ſucceſſion from one perſon to another, the political capacity of the king remaining always entire. It preſerved ſacred and inviolate the perſon upon the throne, and had protected it amidſt the imbecility of infancy,

fancy, and the decrepitude of age. Certain forms of law were evidence of the will of the king, and, whenever they appeared, could not be averred againſt. Of this nature was affixing the great ſeal. If the chancellor were now to put the ſeal to any act, it could not be contradicted, its legality could not be diſputed, it muſt be received by the courts of juſtice, and proceeded on as law. In the mean time, the actual imbecility of the king being known, the perſonal danger incurred by the chancellor in an action of this ſort was ſuch, as would deter any man from committing it. It ſeemed however to afford a natural reſource in ſuch an emergency as the preſent, and parliament might authoriſe and indemnify the chancellor in ſuch an extraordinary exertion of his office. When the reſolutions paſſed for the ſecond time under the reviſion of the houſe, an amendment upon the ſecond of them was moved by Mr. Dempſter, declaring, that it was the duty of the two houſes of parliament to provide the means of ſupplying the preſent defect, by preſenting an addreſs to the prince of Wales, heir apparent and of full age, requeſting him to take upon himſelf the adminiſtration of the civil and military government during the royal incapacity. The houſe divided upon this amendment, ayes 178, noes 251.

The reſolutions which had thus been paſſed were communicated to the houſe of lords on the following day, and were taken into conſideration on the twenty-ſixth. The debate was opened by the earl of Abingdon, who argued decidedly in favour of the projected act of parliament. He obſerved, that by an act of king William every perſon, that ſhould hold communion with the ſee of Rome, or ſhould marry a papiſt, was expreſsly excluded from ſucceeding to the throne; and he aſked, ſuppoſing a caſe to occur within the proviſion of this ſtatute, who was to be the judge of its force and application? By the doctrine recently maintained he was bound to conclude, that the legiſlature alone, of which the king is one of the conſtituent parts, was competent to this deciſion. Was it then neceſſary, in order to exclude a king from the throne, that he ſhould aſſent to his own excluſion? No: the excluſion appertained to the lords and commons of Great Britain and to them alone, as the truſtees and repreſentatives of the nation. But, if this were ſo, where there was an hereditary right, where that right had taken place, and when the crown was already on the head of the king, how could it with any colour of reaſon be objected to, where there was no right at all?

Lord Rawdon moved an amendment ſimilar to that of Mr. Dempſter in the houſe of commons, and this amendment was ſupported by lord viſcount Stormont and lord Loughborough. Lord Stormont recommended it as being preciſely the ſame, in the form in which it was offered by lord Rawdon, with that adopted by the convention parliament, when it was reſolved to addreſs the prince of Orange, excepting only the reference to the royal incapacity: and he farther obſerved, that by an act of king Henry the Eighth, not only the annexation of the great ſeal was neceſſary to every commiſſion for giving the royal aſſent to an act of parliament, but it muſt alſo have the authority of the king's ſign manual; ſo that in order to their adopting the project of adminiſtration, it was requiſite for them

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to diſpenſe with an expreſs act of parliament. Lord Loughborough remarked upon the words of the commencement of the ſecond reſolution, where, inſtead of leaving a blank as had been uſual for the inſertion of "the lords ſpiritual and temporal," the houſe of commons had undertaken to preſcribe and declare what were the rights and duties of that houſe. He denied that the majority of the precedents that had been adduced were in point, ſince they had occurred in a complete legiſlature, while in the preſent inſtance they had not even ventured to conſider themſelves as a parliament. The ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, though he thought without much occaſion, had doubted whether he had authority to iſſue a writ; not one of the ſtanding orders had been enforced; the votes had not been printed; and lord Loughborough even heſitated, whether parliamentary privilege, ſo far as it related to the other houſe, at that moment had exiſtence.

Lord Lanſdown expreſſed himſelf deciſively in favour of the reſolutions. He quoted the treatiſe of judge Foſter upon the Principles of the Conſtitution, to prove, that even hereditary ſucceſſion could not be conſidered as a right, but merely as a political expedient, ſubject to the reviſion of the two houſes of parliament; an obſervation, which, as he remarked, applied with double force to the caſe of a regent. He was anxious therefore that this momentous queſtion ſhould not only be diſcuſſed but decided; that the eyes of all mankind might be opened to this important truth, that the people had eſſential rights of their own, but that kings and princes had no rights whatever. He aſſerted, that the doctrine, that there exiſted in the prince of Wales a right to exerciſe the royal authority during the incapacity of the king, was full of miſchief and danger. Suppoſe, for inſtance, that the preſent prince of Wales, inſtead of reſiding at Windſor, and ſetting an example of tenderneſs and affection for the ſovereign, inſtead of doing the honours of the country to foreigners, and raiſing the national character for poliſhed manners, as report ſaid he had done, throughout Europe, had been caballing away his time in the capital, intriguing with the army and the navy, cultivating his intereſt with foreign powers, and raiſing money to carry on his ambitious projects. Would not every man in the kingdom wiſh, that, if ſuch had been the conduct of the prince of Wales, there were a power in the two houſes of parliament to ſtep in, ſuperſede his alledged claim to the regency, and appoint another?

Lord Lanſdown aſſerted, that the preſent parliament was not a convention, but to all intents and purpoſes a parliament regularly aſſembled. The king had aſſembled them, and the king had an undoubted authority to do it, becauſe he was living. According to the law and conſtitution of England the throne was never vacant, and the king in no age or condition was ever conſidered as unequal and incompetent to the exerciſe of the royal functions. It was not to be preſumed that theſe principles were without a meaning; on the contrary our old principles of law were commonly found to have been ſuggeſted by the deepeſt wiſdom, calculated not only to remedy paſt evils when they riſe afreſh, but to meet future and unexpected exigencies. There could not be a

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ſtronger illuſtration of this, than that which was furniſhed by the preſent criſis. He wiſhed therefore that adminiſtration had come to parliament at once, with ſuch a commiſſion as was deſcribed in the third reſolution. It would have coincided with the opinion he had frequently given during the American war, when the practice had been to obtain before hand the ſanction of parliament, to confound the legiſlative with the executive authority, to take away the reſponſibility of miniſters, and to weaken the powers of enquiry and cenſure which the conſtitution had veſted in the legiſlature. Some riſk would undoubtedly have been incurred; but great officers were appointed for the execution of great and important undertakings, and, if they refuſed to encounter peril and hazard, they had no buſineſs in high ſituations. Lord Lanſdown, however, ſaw no eventual difference between the preſent proceeding and that which he had deſcribed. Thoſe that did the act, were expoſed to the riſk; and, notwithſtanding the proceedings in the American war, if miniſters ſhould be found to have perſuaded parliament to what was unjuſt or unneceſſary, this ought only to aggravate their crime. If on the contrary a meaſure was juſt, well-intended and wiſe, the advice of the two houſes of parliament could not certainly render it leſs authentic, but muſt conſiderably increaſe its title to the public confidence. Lord Lanſdown alluded to the opinion ſome years ago maintained againſt him by Mr. Fox, that the exerciſe of the royal negative was in all caſes unconſtitutional; and obſerved, that the preſent meaſure only deprived the crown in a ſingle inſtance of that free will, of which Mr. Fox had been deſirous to deprive it altogether, and which in no inſtance had been thought fit to be exerciſed by the family now on the throne.

Lord Thurlow deſcanted with conſiderable ſeverity on the amendment of Lord Rawdon, which he ſaid conveyed no diſtinct or preciſe meaning. It requeſted the prince of Wales to take upon himſelf the regency. What did the term regent mean? Where was it defined? He had heard of cuſtodes regni, of lieutenants for the king, of guardians and protectors, and of lords juſtices; but he knew not where to look for an explanation of the office and functions of a regent. To what end then addreſs the prince of Wales to take upon himſelf a character, the nature of which was by no means aſcertained? But the amendment attempted ſomething which probably was intended as a ſort of definition of the term regent, by adding, that what the prince was requeſted to aſſume was the adminiſtration of the executive government. This again was dark and equivocal. Did it mean the whole royal authority? And if it did, would it be ſupported by any peer in that houſe? No man entertained a higher reſpect for the prince of Wales than he did; but the prince had a better intereſt in the crown, than he could have in the regency; and it was their duty to preſerve the power of the crown, ſafe, entire, and uninjured. In anſwer to lord Lanſdown the chancellor obſerved, that thoſe perſons, who now cenſured the conduct of adminiſtration, would have been ten times more loud in their invective, had miniſters of themſelves put the great ſeal to a commiſſion for opening the ſeſſion of parliament. His opinion had decidedly been to reſort to the great

council

council of the nation, and to call upon them in the face of the public to act upon their own wisdom and authority. He agreed with the marquis of Lansdown as to the constitutional importance of the royal negative; declaring that he had thought himself indebted to him upon a former occasion, for having pointed out the utility of such a power being vested in the crown. He was satisfied, that, so far from being a power that no prince of the house of Brunswic was likely to exercise, a day would sooner or later occur, in which the salvation of the constitution and country might depend upon the exercise of this truly royal prerogative. The house divided upon the amendment of lord Rawdon, contents 66, not contents 99. A protest was entered, signed by the duke of York, the duke of Cumberland, and forty-six other peers.

An incident occurred in this stage of the business, that was calculated to render the singular situation of the two houses of parliament more palpable and conspicuous. Mr. Cornwal, speaker of the house of commons, died after a few days indisposition on the second of January 1789. This was a case that fell within the usual sphere of the royal prerogative, it being requisite to proceed to the immediate election of a new speaker, and the person elected not being accustomed to take upon himself the duties of his office, till his appointment had received the approbation of the king. This form it was necessary to dispense with in the present instance, and on the fifth of January it was moved by lord Euston son of the duke of Grafton, and Mr. Pulteney, that Mr. Grenville, brother to the marquis of Buckingham, and one of the joint paymasters of the forces, be chosen to supply the present vacancy. By Mr. Welbore Ellis and Mr. Frederic Montagu, in the name of the other party in the house of commons, it was moved, that the speaker to be elected should be Sir Gilbert Elliot, who had lately distinguished himself by the proposed impeachment of Sir Elijah Impey. Upon this question the house divided, for Mr. Grenville 215, for Sir Gilbert Elliot 144.

The day following had been fixed by Mr. Pitt for the period of explaining to the house of commons the restrictions, which he should propose as necessary to accompany the declaration of a regent. This topic was however procrastinated, in consequence of the motion of Mr. Loveden for the appointment of a fresh committee to enquire into and report the state of the health of the king. It may naturally be supposed, that the royal indisposition was at this time an object of considerable curiosity, and that of consequence various and contradictory rumours would be propagated upon the subject. The degree of uncertainty was increased by the opposition and rivalship that had broken out between doctor Richard Warren, one of the principal physicians in ordinary to the king, and doctor Francis Willis, whose original profession had been that of a clergyman, and who had been called in the month of December, as from the practice in which he had for some years been engaged having particular experience of persons afflicted with the royal malady. Doctor Warren was particularly cautious of delivering any prognostics upon the

subject,

ſubject, being unwilling to flatter the public with any deluſory expectations; while on the other hand doctor Willis conceived from the firſt the moſt ſanguine hopes of his patient's recovery, and delivered his opinions with a confidence, which was ultimately juſtified by the event. Doctor Willis therefore, as was natural, became exceedingly acceptable to the queen; and doctor Warren, by her majeſty's interference, was in one inſtance prevailed upon to ſign a report of the ſovereign's health ſomewhat more favourable than he thought in ſtrictneſs it ought to have been.

Such were a part of the reaſons that induced Mr. Loveden to propoſe a new and more minute enquiry into the ſubject; a propoſition that was at firſt reſiſted by Mr. Pitt, and ſeveral other members of the houſe of commons. Mr. Fox expreſſed ſimilar ſentiments, obſerving at the ſame time, that in the ſubject, which by the order of the day they were called upon to diſcuſs, they were bound to ſhut their ears upon all vague reports, and to confine themſelves to the facts which had been regularly brought before them. It became them however to remember, that the information upon which they were to proceed had been communicated four weeks before, and that of conſequence four weeks were to be conſidered as having elapſed, without any alteration in the king's health. He cenſured the opinion, which had a few days before been delivered by lord Thurlow in the houſe of lords, declaring that he had reaſon to hope that his majeſty's recovery was at no conſiderable diſtance. No man ought to declare his ſentiments on either ſide of ſo intereſting a queſtion, unleſs the grounds upon which thoſe ſentiments reſted could be rendered the objects of examination and enquiry, and be a clue to facts which might be ſubſtantiated in evidence. Mr. Pitt now declared, that his opinion upon the propoſition of Mr. Loveden was altered; and that, incapable of admitting the inferences that had been made by Mr. Fox, he muſt become the advocate of a farther enquiry. He had hitherto carefully avoided giving any opinion of his own upon the ſubject that at preſent intereſted the houſe, from a conviction that parliament could not render the private ſentiments of any man the ground of their proceedings. Prompted however as he now was, he muſt declare that the very reverſe of Mr. Fox's inferrence was the fact; and, when he made ſuch a declaration in the ſituation in which he ſtood, he could not be ſuppoſed to ſpeak altogether without information. Mr. Pitt proceeded to animadvert upon ſome reaſonings that had been employed by Mr. Burke, to prove, from a compariſon of the reports of the phyſicians, that the king's recovery was not ſpeedily to be effected. He declared, that theſe reaſonings appeared to him to be ſuch as could not ariſe but from Mr. Burke's entertaining wiſhes different from thoſe of the reſt of the houſe. Mr. Fox repelled this inſinuation. Nothing, he obſerved, was more natural, than eagerly to reſiſt any attempt to deceive an affectionate people, and to prevent that houſe from being deluded under falſe pretences into a mode of government that would ſacrifice the conſtitution. In ſuch a cauſe he felt a warmth, ſuperior even to his attachment to majeſty, ſuperior to the love of loyalty which a ſubject owed his ſovereign, a warmth ariſing out

of

of the natural predilection which every man of honour felt for the truth, and his deteſtation for all ſorts of diſſimulation and falſhood. Mr. Sheridan moved an amendment upon the propoſition for a committee of enquiry, authoriſing the members not merely to receive the evidence of the royal phyſicians, but to enquire generally into the nature and ſtate of the king's malady and the probability of his ſpeedy recovery, and to ſend for ſuch perſons and papers as might conduce to their information. The houſe divided upon this amendment, ayes 141, noes 221.

The report of the committee which was thus inſtituted, inſtead of being prepared as was predicted in a few hours, occupied a period of ſeven days. The different parties in the houſe of commons were exceedingly anxious to obtain the moſt deciſive and unqueſtionable evidence reſpecting the king's health, and the ſeveral political views with which they were inſpired ſtrongly enforced the general ſpirit of curioſity. The report was voluminous, and the phyſicians underwent the moſt accurate and ſevere examination. But, though a conſiderable degree of intelligence was thus obtained reſpecting the preciſe nature and ſymptoms of the royal indiſpoſition, the treatment he had received, and the conduct of the perſons to whoſe care he was intruſted, yet there do not appear upon the face of the report any ſatisfactory materials, out of which to have formed a judgment reſpecting the duration of the king's malady; and each ſide of the houſe of commons ſtill continued to reaſon concerning it in the manner moſt calculated to ſtrengthen their different arguments.

CHAP. VI.

Correſpondence of the Prince of Wales and Mr. Pitt. Reſtrictions on the Regency. Peerage Reſtriction. Government of the Royal Houſhold veſted in the Queen. Seſſion of Parliament opened. Regency Bill. Debates.

THE project of adminiſtration, reſpecting the form of government to be inſtituted, and the meaſures previouſly to be adopted by the two houſes of parliament, was ſuch, as ſeemed to render it neceſſary for them to conſider the prince of Wales in no other light in the outſet of the buſineſs, than as a privy counſellor and a prince of the blood; and ſuch had accordingly been the principle upon which they acted, till their propoſitions reſpecting the deciſion of the queſtion of right had been ultimately adopted by the two houſes of parliament. The next meaſure it became them to take, was the proceeding by bill, or by reſolutions to be made the groundwork of a bill, to provide for the adminiſtration

adminiſtration of the executive government during the period of the royal incapacity. In this ſituation they conceived themſelves at liberty, and of conſequence regarded it as an act of deference and reſpect, to communicate to the prince of Wales the propoſitions they intended to offer to parliament upon this intereſting ſubject. A letter was addreſſed to him by Mr. Pitt on the thirtieth of December, informing him that it was the opinion of the king's confidential ſervants, that he ſhould be empowered to exerciſe the royal authority during the illneſs and in the name of his father; providing nevertheleſs, that the care of the king's perſon and the diſpoſition of his houſhold ſhould be committed to the queen; and that the power to be exerciſed by the prince ſhould not extend to the perſonal property of his father; to the granting any office, reverſion or penſion, except where the law abſolutely required it, as in the caſe of the judges, for any other term than during the king's pleaſure; nor to the conferring any peerage, unleſs upon ſuch perſons of the royal iſſue as ſhould have attained the age of twenty-one years. Mr. Pitt added, that the ideas he had ſuggeſted were founded upon the ſuppoſition that the royal malady was only temporary, and might be of ſhort duration. It would be difficult to fix at preſent the preciſe period for which theſe proviſions ought to endure, but it would be open hereafter to the wiſdom of parliament to reconſider them, whenever circumſtances might appear to render it eligible.

The anſwer of the prince of Wales is dated on the ſecond of January 1789, and expreſſes with conſiderable force the ſentiments which he might have been expected to feel upon a ſimilar occaſion. Reſpecting the ſteps already taken he was ſilent. No proceeding of the two houſes of parliament could be a proper ſubject of his animadverſion; but when, previous to any diſcuſſion in the legiſlature, the outlines of a ſcheme of government, in which it was propoſed that he ſhould be perſonally and principally concerned, and by which the royal authority and the public welfare might be deeply affected, were ſent to him for his conſideration, it would be unjuſtifiable in him to withhold an explicit declaration of his ſentiments. His ſilence might be conſtrued into the previous approbation of a plan, the accompliſhment of which every motive of duty to his father and ſovereign, as well as of regard for the public intereſt, obliged him to conſider as injurious to both. It was with deep regret that the prince perceived in the propoſitions of adminiſtration a project for introducing weakneſs, diſorder and inſecurity into every branch of political buſineſs, a project for dividing the royal family from each other, for ſeparating the court from the ſtate, and depriving government of its natural and accuſtomed ſupport; a ſcheme for diſconnecting the authority to command ſervice from the power of animating it by reward, and for alloting to him all the invidious duties of the kingly ſtation, without the means of ſoftening them to the public by any one act of grace, favour or benignity. His feelings upon the ſubject were rendered ſtill more painful by obſerving, that the propoſitions were not founded in any general principle, but were calculated to infuſe jealouſies and ſuſpicion, which

he truſted were entirely groundleſs, among thoſe whoſe confidence it would ever be the firſt pride of his life to merit and obtain.

The prince was of opinion that it was an undoubted and fundamental principle of the Britiſh conſtitution, that the powers and prerogatives of the crown were veſted there as a truſt for the benefit of the people, and that they were ſacred only as they conduced to preſerve that balance of the conſtitution, which was the true ſecurity of the liberty of the ſubject. He therefore obſerved that the plea of public utility muſt be ſtrong, manifeſt and urgent, that could thus require the extinction or ſuſpenſion of any one of thoſe eſſential rights in the ſupreme power or its repreſentative, or which could juſtify the prince in conſenting that in his perſon an experiment ſhould be made, to aſcertain with how ſmall a portion of kingly power the executive government of his country could be conducted. The prince declared, that, if ſecurity for the king's repoſſeſſing his rightful government were any part of the object of this plan, he had only to be convinced that any meaſure was neceſſary or even conducive to that end, to be the moſt forward in its recommendation. If attention to what it was preſumed might be the king's feelings and wiſhes on the happy day of his recovery were the object, it was with the trueſt ſincerity the prince expreſſed his firm conviction, that no event could be more repugnant to the feelings of his royal father, than to know, that the government of his ſon and repreſentative had exhibited the ſovereign power in a ſtate of degradation, of curtailed authority and diminiſhed energy; a ſtate, injurious in its practice to the proſperity of the people, and miſchievous in its precedent to the ſecurity of the monarch and the rights of his family. He added, that it had been neither neceſſary nor proper for Mr. Pitt to ſuggeſt to him the reſtraint he propoſed againſt his diſſipating the king's real and perſonal property. He did not conceive that he was by the law entitled to diſſipate it, and he was ſure that he had never ſhown the ſmalleſt inclination to poſſeſs ſuch a power. In fine, his conviction of the evils which might otherwiſe ariſe, outweighed in his mind every other conſideration, and would determine him to undertake the painful truſt, impoſed upon him by that melancholy neceſſity, which of all the king's ſubjects he deplored the moſt, in full confidence that the affection and loyalty to the king, the attachment to the houſe of Brunſwic, and the generoſity that had always diſtinguiſhed the nation, would carry him through the difficulties that ſurrounded him, with comfort to himſelf, with honour to the king and with advantage to the public.

The moſt ſingular part of the project we have recited appears to have been that for confiding to the queen the power to remove, nominate and appoint the officers of the royal houſhold, aſſiſted by a permanent council, to be ſelected by parliament, and to conſiſt in ſome meaſure of the members of the preſent adminiſtration. We know not how far Mr. Pitt was aware of the conſequence of this meaſure, but it certainly requires but little politics to foreſee, that a power would thus have been created to counteract the operations and energies of the prince's adminiſtration. The annual income of the royal houſhold was computed to amount to

three

three hundred thouſand pounds, and the number of officers of which it conſiſted to four hundred, an influence, that would certainly have been ſufficiently formidable to a government in other reſpects reſtricted and limited. The lords of the bedchamber alone had twice in the courſe of the preſent reign proved an active engine in overturning the adminiſtration of their country. Hitherto they had only been employed, when any miſunderſtanding aroſe between the king and his miniſters; by the project of Mr. Pitt they were made a fortreſs, from which at all times to attack the exiſting government. It is true that Mr. Pitt pledged himſelf, that he would not engage in a factious oppoſition, and that he would ſupport the miniſters, whoſe principles he ſo eagerlyc ondemned, in all their wiſe and prudent meaſures. But it needs only a very ſlight acquaintance with the modern hiſtory of England to judge of the value to be aſcribed to theſe profeſſions. It was not the leaſt extraordinary circumſtance in theſe tranſactions, that the queen could be prevailed upon to lend her name to a project, which would eventually have placed her in avowed rivalſhip with her ſon, and, at a moment when her attention might ſeem to be abſorbed by domeſtic calamity, have eſtabliſhed her at the head of a political party.

The argument by which the reſtrictions were defended, was the propriety of taking care, that the king, when he ſhould recover, ſhould feel as little mortification as poſſible from the intermediate tranſactions, and ſhould be enabled to reſume with facility and certainty the adminiſtration of government. To the auſtere and inflexible advocate for liberty theſe reaſons will not appear of ſufficient weight to authoriſe a dangerous experiment in the theory of politics; but in another view he will feel no violent reſentment againſt them. The inhabitants of England are too deeply impreſſed with a prejudice, that their political conſtitution is the model and abſtract of conſummate perfection; and, whatever queries may be ſtarted reſpecting the power of war and peace, of tranſacting in the firſt inſtance with all foreign countries, and of originating almoſt every ſpecies of meaſures, the general but unmeaning anſwer will be found to be, that ſuch were the wiſe proviſions of our anceſtors. We have ſeen no variation in the powers of government, and we haſtily conclude that no variation is practicable. The project of Mr. Pitt would have been a great and valuable experiment, that might have terminated in a very different manner from what the miniſter expected; or at leaſt would have ſet men's minds afloat and engaged them in the examination of the firſt principles of political government. If a regency of ſeveral years had taken place, and that regency had proceeded ſucceſsfully notwithſtanding all its checks and limitations, it can ſcarcely be believed that we ſhould have ſubmitted with patience to the revival of uſeleſs prerogatives. The human underſtanding throughout all Europe is awake, and no bold and unprecedented experiment can be made in political government, without the proſpect of producing the moſt ineſtimable conſequences. Theſe reaſonings therefore would juſtify the greater part of Mr. Pitt's propoſitions; but it will be ſeen that Mr. Pitt placed his juſtification upon a very different baſis. The leaſt commendable part of the ſcheme in a

comprehenſive view is that of the royal houſhold, upon which we have already deſcanted. The executive government may be proſperouſly conducted with powers much leſs than the Engliſh conſtitution veſts in the king. To reſtrict its prerogatives may be judicious; but it does not ſeem to be peculiarly deſirable, that another power ſhould be created at the public expence to ſtruggle with the actual adminiſtration, and that two contending authorities ſhould thus exert the influence of office, rank and emolument, in rivalſhip to each other.

Adminiſtration was encouraged in their purſuit of the plan they had formed, by the addreſſes that were preſented to them from various parts of the kingdom, expreſſive of the gratitude of the perſons by whom they were ſent, for the aſſertion which had been made by the houſe of commons of their right of providing for the preſent deficiency. Theſe addreſſes, as has frequently been found in ſimilar caſes, were not ſo deciſive from the importance of the places or aſſemblies in which they originated, as not to leave room for a plauſible argument againſt the inference that was intended to be drawn from them. It cannot however be denied, that the ſenſe of the people of England was favourable to the meaſures of adminiſtration; and it is highly important that ſuch predilections ſhould be recorded by the hiſtorian, that ſo from the majority of examples a judgment may be deduced reſpecting the infallibility of the deciſions of the people at large. The addreſſes were preſented in the name of the counties of Devon and Dorſet, the merchants of the city of London, the citizens of Worceſter, Oxford and Durham, and the towns of Mancheſter, Birmingham, Leeds, Nottingham, Taunton, and many other places. In ſome inſtances, as in that of the county of Northumberland, the event ſeems to have been rather favourable to the members of oppoſition, and gave occaſion to ſome conteſt and aſperity between the individuals concerned, in the houſe of commons. In the meetings for London and Mancheſter, the majority was ſaid to be adverſe to the meaſure propoſed. In ſome few of the examples we have mentioned, the addreſs to the miniſter was accompanied by an addreſs to the regent, intreating him to make no change in the members of the exiſting government.

Mr. Pitt opened his propoſitions to the houſe of commons on the ſixteenth of January. He ſaid, that the report which had juſt been prepared abundantly confirmed the ſentiments he had before entertained upon the ſubject. He ſhould however make no alteration in what he had intended to ſuggeſt, and ſhould ſtate now what he had deſigned to ſtate then, as the ground of their proceedings; that the king's recovery was more probable than the contrary, and that the greateſt length to which the malady was ordinarily known to extend was a year and a half or two years, the ſhorteſt three months, and the average five or ſix. Such was the deciſive opinion of Dr. Willis, who of all the king's phyſicians was moſt entitled to credit, as having had the greateſt experience in this particular diſorder, and being moſt conſtant in his attendance upon his patient. Mr. Pitt adverted to the regency bills of queen Anne, of king George the Firſt and king George the Second, where, the circumſtance in contemplation being a minority, the

proſpect of a more certain and longer delegation of power was afforded than might be expected in the preſent inſtance. In each of theſe caſes, the powers of the crown had been lodged not in one ſingle hand, but in a great variety of perſons. He had himſelf conſiderable doubts whether theſe bills were well adapted to the circumſtances of the times in which they had paſſed, and accordingly was firmly of opinion, that the political power ſhould be intruſted by parliament to one individual. But as the delegated authority had in former inſtances been reſtricted by the mode in which it was diſtributed, ſo he deemed it more eſpecially right in the preſent, that it ſhould have certain limitations. He reaſoned particularly upon the limitation reſpecting the peerage, and obſerved, that it could ſcarcely be maintained, that the want of ſuch an incentive for a few months was likely to deprive the country of the ſervice of its meritorious citizens. The prerogative of creating peers was of a very delicate nature, ſince an honour of this ſort was permanent, and, when once given, could not be revoked. As an inſtance of its poſſible abuſe, Mr. Pitt deſired to make the ſuppoſition of ſuch a confederacy and cabal being formed, as had been convicted a few years ſince of a deſign to overthrow the conſtitution, alledging, that by ſuch perſons they might expect the regent to be adviſed to create ſo great a number of peers, as would conſiderably embarras the crown in carrying on the government, when the king ſhould again be reſtored to his regal capacity. The laſt propoſition was not leſs important and indiſpenſible. Without inveſting the queen with the controul of the houſhold, ſhe could not properly diſcharge the guardianſhip, which they were unanimouſly diſpoſed to commit to her care. It was impoſſible to ſuppoſe, that the influence ariſing from this patronage could operate to the diſadvantage of the regent's adminiſtration. For a moment to harbour the idea would be equally romantical and indecent. He believed that no man would venture to charge blame of any kind upon this great perſonage, who had lived almoſt thirty years in the country a pattern of domeſtic affection, tenderneſs and virtue, againſt whom the breath of calumny had not dared to utter a whiſper, and who could not merit it at a moment of ſuch complicated affliction. The maſter of the horſe indeed, the lord chamberlain, the lord ſteward of the houſhold and others were by many thought high officers of ſtate; but the fact was otherwiſe. They were the menial ſervants of the crown, eſſential to its dignity and ſplendour. He urged it upon the houſe as a matter of humanity and loyalty not to interfere with the king's domeſtic arrangements. What muſt that great perſonage feel, when he waked from the trance of his faculties, and aſked for his attendants, if he were told, that his ſubjects had taken advantage of his momentary abſence of mind, and ſtripped him of the ſymbols of his perſonal elevation! Mr. Pitt added, that he was ſenſible of what was due to the regent, who ought to have a retinue adequate to the importance of his ſtation. He meant to propoſe ſuch a retinue, and he was confident, that, though it might involve ſome additional expence, it would cheerfully and unreluctantly be contributed by that houſe.

Mr. Grenville diſcuſſed the ſubject at conſiderable length. He obſerved,

that of all the powers of the crown that of creating peers was the moſt liable to be abuſed by a temporary government. It was indeed a prerogative of ſo high a nature, that nothing but ſtrong neceſſity could juſtify the placing it in the ſovereign himſelf. As exerciſed by him it was however ſubject to this reſtraint, that the miſchiefs attendant on its abuſe operated againſt the peace and ſecurity of that government, of which the king was in actual poſſeſſion, and which he was to retain for the whole period of his life. The caſe of a regent was widely different. If we ſuppoſed him to be ill adviſed, what more natural means were there of preventing the king's return to the exerciſe of his authority, or at leaſt of embarraſſing and thwarting him whenever he might feel it his duty to counteract the views of a party, than the abuſe of this particular prerogative?

Lord North upon this occaſion retorted upon miniſters the argument they had employed in a former debate. The meaſure parliament was now called upon to adopt contradicted that wiſe maxim of our conſtitution, that the king could never die. The king it was true, in his individual and natural capacity, ſuffered a demiſe, but the political capacity of the crown was whole and entire, and the reaſon of this maxim was obviouſly to guard againſt and prevent ainte rregnum of imperial power. Miniſters had contrived to produce that evil, againſt which the conſtitution had ſo cautiouſly guarded, and had deviſed the political death of the crown. Lord North particularly reaſoned upon the reſtriction in the peerage. Mr. Pitt, he ſaid, had profeſſed to rely upon precedents and analogy. Could he produce either the one or the other to prove that the power of creating peers could remain dormant in the conſtitution? The laſt peerage bill which had fallen under diſcuſſion was in the reign of George the Firſt. The king was then old and infirm, and the miniſtry, though a powerful party, compoſed of men of high character, of great abilities and authority in the country, were imagined not to be much in the good graces of the heir apparent. They had reaſon therefore to expect, that, when the prince of Wales came to the crown, he would create ſo many new peers, that their party would be outnumbered in the houſe of lords. With a view to avert this cataſtrophe, they propoſed to limit for the future the number of peers to be created. Such at leaſt were the motives that were imputed to their conduct. The bill in queſtion was evidently calculated to increaſe the importance of the peerage, and therefore was eagerly ſupported by the whole of that houſe, though they plainly ſaw the object for which it had been introduced. The peers in oppoſition overlooked the political diſtinction of the times, and the duke of Buckingham, who was at their head, had conſented to undertake the patronage of the bill. Its ſucceſs therefore in the upper houſe was inevitable; but the houſe of commons of that period had given it a very different reception, and ſpurned at a meaſure, the direct tendency of which was to overturn the balance of the conſtitution. Lord North recommended it to his hearers to proceed with the utmoſt circumſpection. If the reſtriction were adopted, were they ſure that the houſe of lords would be as ready to annihilate, as they might be found to eſtabliſh it? When the period arrived

rived for reviſing the preſent meaſures, the houſe of lords might poſſibly demur, and reply, that the reſtriction was in their opinion ſtill neceſſary, and that they were too wiſe to part, with what the houſe of commons had been improvident enough to concede. Lord North controverted Mr. Pitt's deſcription of the great officers of the houſhold. They might in the time of king George the Second have been intimately connected with the interior of the palace, and been in the ſtrict ſenſe of the word domeſtics of the ſovereign; but it was well known that of late years the lords of the bedchamber had been otherwiſe employed. They were indeed the political ſervants of the crown, not appointed for the domeſtic convenience of the monarch, but for his public pomp, being a part of the pageantry annexed to his office, and a ſource of the influence which it was intended to maintain among the people at large.

Mr. Sheridan controverted Mr. Pitt's deſcription of the report of the committee, and ſaid, that, if ever there was a witneſs who appeared to give prevaricating and evaſive anſwers, it was doctor Willis. At one time he ſtated, that the daily accounts that were publiſhed of the king's health were conſidered by him merely as preſcriptions for the public to ſwallow; and at others that they were the reſult of converſations that had never taken place. He talked of poſſeſſing the gift of ſeeing men's hearts by looking into their countenances, and by that means inſtantly diſcovering the true ſtate of their health; and, a few days after he had been admitted to attend upon the king, he had deſcribed the royal illneſs as the reſult of twenty-ſeven years of extreme ſtudy, abſtinence and labour, at the ſame time declaring, that the king was recovering, becauſe the medicine he had that day given him had produced the deſired effect. Such aſſertions reminded him of the noſtrums that were to cure this and the other malady, and alſo diſappointments in love and long ſea voyages. Mr. Sheridan adverted to the eulogium Mr. Pitt had pronounced upon the queen, which he ſaid appeared to him to have been deſigned to provoke a diſcuſſion of her conduct. Thoſe, who would give reſponſibility to the queen, who would take her out of that private and domeſtic ſtation in which ſhe had conducted herſelf ſo amiably and irreproachably, were the perſons who really manifeſted a want of delicacy, and whoſe proceedings were calculated to interrupt her tranquillity. Mr. Pitt had diſcovered in one part of his ſpeech the true motives of his conduct, when he ſtated his apprehenſion that the government would fall into the hands of thoſe perſons, who he had dared to aſſert had been convicted of a confederacy to overturn the conſtitution. This was the real ſpring of Mr. Pitt's meaſures. Had the regent intended to keep the preſent miniſters in office, the limitations, he verily believed, would never have been heard of. The whole of Mr. Pitt's conduct was confeſſedly governed by party conſiderations and the impulſe of his perſonal ambition. He had talked of the evil adviſers to whom the regent might poſſibly be expoſed. But was there in fact any reaſon to dread ſuch a circumſtance? If it occurred, was there not vigour enough left in that houſe, to cruſh any attempts at the

abuſe of authority, to call bad miniſters to a ſevere account, and addreſs the regent to remove them from his councils? Mr. Pitt had more than once wantonly attacked that ſide of the houſe, as containing a political party. He made no ſcruple to declare, that he thought it the glory and honour of his life to belong to that party. Was it a diſgrace to have been formed under the marquis of Rockingham, and under his banners to have combated with ſucceſs in the cauſe of the people? Was it a diſgrace to be connected with the duke of Portland, a nobleman, who, ſwayed by no mean motives of intereſt, nor influenced by any ambitious aſpirings for power, and actuated ſolely by the deſire of the public welfare, dedicated his mornings unremittingly to the ſervice of his country? Of Mr. Fox Mr Sheridan remarked, that it was his characteriſtic diſtinction, fully to poſſeſs himſelf of the affection of all thoſe who were in habits of intercourſe with him, and to force them by the moſt powerful and amiable ſort of compulſion to participate in his fortune. With reſpect to his talents he would not ſpeak of them. They could derive no additional luſtre from the moſt ſanguine panegyric of the moſt enlightened of his friends. Thus much only he would obſerve with regard to the extent of his mind and the keenneſs of his underſtanding, that it was the beſt proof of any other man's talents to be able to comprehend the enlargement and feel the ſuperiority of thoſe of his friend. He regarded the friendſhip of ſuch men as the greateſt happineſs that could befal him; and he deſired to know whether the duke of Portland and Mr. Fox were the leſs worthy of the confidence of their country or the more unfit to become miniſters, becauſe an arrogant individual choſe preſumptuouſly to load them with calumny? He begged leave to remind Mr. Pitt, that, after this confederacy, which he had ſo groſsly calumniated, had formed their coalition and paſſed their India bill, he had profeſſed himſelf ready to join them, and a treaty, as the houſe well knew, had been ſet on foot, though it had not been brought to a ſucceſsful concluſion. Mr. Sheridan commented on the declaration of the miniſter that he would not join in any factious oppoſition. He had made a ſimilar declaration upon a former occaſion, to which he had afterwards ſhown no diſpoſition to adhere. Mr. Sheridan condemned in the ſtrongeſt terms the idea of reſerving the patronage of the houſhold, which could anſwer no other purpoſe but what Mr. Pitt had unjuſtly charged upon Mr. Fox, the erecting a fortreſs, from which, when he was out of office, he might ſucceſsfully counteract the meaſures of adminiſtration. The pretence, that the feelings of the king would be ſhocked when he recovered and found his houſhold changed, was ridiculous. The bad adviſers of the regent were to be allowed the power of making war and peace and alliances, and exerting various other important prerogatives. To talk therefore of the feelings of the king as Mr. Pitt did, was to ſuppoſe that he would be leſs ſhocked to learn that the conſtitution of the government was changed, part of his dominions ceded to foreign potentates, and a thouſand calamities and diſgraces entailed upon his country, than to be informed of the moſt trivial alteration in his domeſtic arrangements. Mr. Sheridan deſcribed

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the ex-miniſter, as coming down to the houſe in ſtate, with the cap of liberty upon the end of a white ſtaff, a retinue of black and white ſticks attending him, and an army of beef-eaters to clear his way through the lobby.

Colonel Fullarton ſpoke againſt the project of reſtrictions. He ſaid, that Mr. Pitt had declared it to be the duty of the houſe, to grant no more power to the regent, than appeared abſolutely neceſſary to the public ſervice. He ſeemed to conceive, that every thing, that could poſſibly be withheld from the repreſentative of the ſovereign during the royal incapacity, was ſo much gained to the ſtate. Colonel Fullarton on the contrary was of opinion, that every portion of the juſt and eſtabliſhed exerciſe of executive authority, which was withheld from the regent, was ſo much loſs to the ſtate; ſince the authority was created for no other purpoſe than the general benefit. Mr. Pitt had been anxious to ſhelter his proceedings under the ſanctions of precedents and analogies of hiſtory. Colonel Fullarton was ready to meet him on that ground, and defied Mr. Pitt to produce a ſingle example from the hiſtory of England, France, Spain or any other country, where the eſtabliſhed legal powers of executive government were maimed, mutilated and reſtrained without producing inefficiency, counteraction and diſgrace. Colonel Fullarton entered into a bold and ſpirited illuſtration of the preſent criſis from the hiſtory of France in the reign of Charles the Sixth. His queen was Iſabella of Bavaria, a princeſs, attached only to her treaſures, and influenced by the chancellor, the prime miniſter and other principal officers of the court, who were afraid, that, if the government ſhould be intruſted to the heir apparent during the king's incapacity, they would loſe their ſituations. Under this impreſſion the deſperate reſolution was formed of inſulting the heir apparent almoſt beyond the limits of endurance, and meaſures were actually adopted for excluding from the government that able and diſtinguiſhed prince, ſole heir and repreſentative of the ſovereign. The miniſter at that time who was the chief confident of Iſabella was Mervilliers, who commenced his career in the profeſſion of the law, but quickly found a nearer opening to advancement by the more productive path of politics. The miniſter and his party, truſting to his eloquence, his talents, his temerity, and his credit with a large portion of the public, and relying on certain other circumſtances, adopted the deſperate reſolution he had ſtated, and even undertook to procure the aſſent of Charles the Sixth to this unnatural meaſure. The king was in a ſtate of total incapacity, and, being conſequently unable to declare his aſſent, the miniſter undertook to obtain the co-operation of Iſabella to the excluſion of her own ſon from the government, and to procure the thanks and approbation of the corporation of the city of Paris. Under theſe circumſtances the treaty of Arras had been concluded, and by means of the chancellor and a fiction of the parliament of Paris he affixed the great ſeal to acts which were the conſequence of that treaty; and thus he deviſed means for giving the royal aſſent, at a time when the royal aſſent could not poſſibly be given. But what were the conſequences of theſe tranſactions? The kingdom

was betrayed to its rivals, ſubjected to the mercy of a foreign enemy, and was not reſcued from theſe diſaſters but by that prince, who poſſeſſed the moſt intereſting qualities and the moſt faſcinating manners, who had attached to his cauſe the nobleſt ſpirits and the beſt abilities of his country, but who had been preſumptuouſly excluded from the executive government.

The project of Mr. Pitt conſiſted of five propoſitions. To the firſt of theſe, veſting the prince of Wales with the royal authority ſubject to ſuch limitations and exceptions as parliament ſhould provide, an amendment was moved by Mr. Powys, the object of which was to confer the exerciſe of the royal authority unaccompanied by any limitations. This amendment was rejected by the uſual majority. Upon the ſecond reſolution, relative to the creation of peers, the houſe divided, ayes 216, noes 159. The reſolutions, that reſpected the granting of offices for life, and the reſervation of the king's real and perſonal property, were then carried without a diviſion.

The conſideration of the fifth reſolution, reſpecting the guardianſhip of the royal perſon and the government of the houſhold, was adjourned to the nineteenth, and was attended with ſome degree of debate. It was ſupported by Mr. Pulteney, who was recently returned from a tour upon the continent, and who took this occaſion of obſerving, that, if he had been preſent, he ſhould have given as deciſive a vote in ſupport of the queſtion of right, as he ſhould now do in favour of the reſtrictions. He aſked, whether the throne was ſo weak, that any perſon who had the power of diſtributing eighty or a hundred thouſand pounds per annum, and of influencing the votes of two or three perſons in that houſe and the lords of the bedchamber in the other could ſhake it? He had formerly given his ſupport to a vote that the influence of the crown was too great and ought to be diminiſhed, and he did not think that it was at that moment ſufficiently reduced.

Lord Maitland declared himſelf inimical to the veſting the care of the king's perſon in the hands of the queen. They all knew what muſt be her majeſty's anxiety, and, though this anxiety might redound to her honour and obtain for her the univerſal eſteem, it might however lead her to a belief of a too favourable report of the ſtate of the king's health, and therefore operated againſt her being excluſively veſted with the guardianſhip. Admitting however the propriety of entruſting to the queen the care of the royal perſon, that very circumſtance diſqualified her for the patronage of the houſhold. Without giving way to any invidious or unworthy ſuſpicion, it eſtabliſhed, abſtractedly conſidered, an intereſt oppoſite to the due diſcharge of the truſt, and which might induce a wiſh to continue the exerciſe after the neceſſity which gave riſe to it ſhould have ceaſed. If the royal authority were too conſiderable under the preſent circumſtances to be conferred upon any ſingle individual, let it be ſuſpended during the king's indiſpoſition; let it not be divided. The dividing it would create a fourth eſtate in the realm, and render the executive government of the country impracticable. The effect of it was in every view of the ſubject to be deprecated. The reſolution gave a great part of the executive power of the country to

the queen, and that without reſponſibility. Who were to be the reſponſible perſons? Was it the queen? No. Were they to look to her council? Certainly not; for by the propoſition of Mr. Pitt they were to be a council of advice, poſſeſſed of no efficient power, and exerting no abſolute controul.

Mr. Fox undertook to contraſt the evils, which were to be apprehended from an unlimited authority in the prince of Wales with the evils that would reſult from a mutilated government. The regent might in the full exerciſe of his authority proceed to the immediate diſmiſſion of the lords of the bedchamber; nay perhaps he might ſend a few members from the houſe of commons to the houſe of peers. Where was the mighty evil of this? At the end of a ſhort period the king reſumed his power, the lords of the bedchamber were replaced, and all that remained was the peers who in that ſpace might have been created. Could this be put in the balance with the ſum of evils that might reſult from the project they were now called upon to adopt? Mr. Fox ſpoke in terms of ſevere reprobation of the tendency of the preſent reſolution to introduce diſcord between the mother and the ſon. He could not utter in terms of ſufficient indignation his abhorrence of ſuch a deſign. He was however ready to confeſs that the machination for accompliſhing it was artfully formed. It was founded in an obſervation of human feelings; it was deduced from the ſpeculation, that, though in good minds there was a diſpoſition to harmony, yet a competition, introduced among perſons the moſt nearly connected in blood, in duty and affection, endangered the exiſtence of the tendereſt feelings, and frequently diſſolved the moſt intimate connection. In truth nothing ſo forcibly characteriſed a noble and godlike mind, as to continue free from jealouſy in ſuch a ſituation. How much then muſt thoſe perſons have to anſwer for, who, with a perfect knowledge of this weakneſs in human nature, wickedly and wantonly propoſed a meaſure calculated to involve the empire in this ſignal calamity? Mr. Fox examined the argument reſpecting the dignity that it was proper ſhould accompany the royal perſon. Did they mean to ſay, that, during the unhappy malady of the king, they wiſhed to exhibit him with all the equipage and regalia of ſtate? It was a dignity, which, under his preſent unfortunate and mortifying circumſtances, was unfit to be beſtowed. It could only engender contumely, and was calculated not to make his ſubjects look up to him with reverence, but to inſpire them with ſcoffing and contempt. Mr. Fox concluded with remarking upon the ſuggeſtion of Mr. Pitt for providing an extraordinary houſhold for the regent under the preſent circumſtances. It might perhaps be a matter of delicacy to ſtate the opinion of the prince of Wales, but he knew it to be his ſentiment, that it would be highly irkſome to him to add any burthen to the country in its preſent melancholy and calamitous circumſtances for the purpoſe of increaſing the ſtate and dignity of his own ſituation. An amendment was moved by Mr. Bouverie, to ſeparate that part of the reſolution which related to the houſhold, and his motion was rejected upon a diviſion, ayes 165, noes 229. A motion of lord North for confining the

the operation of the reſolution to a limited time was rejected by a ſimilar majority. A ſimilar amendment was offered by Mr. Pulteney to limit the regency and the reſtrictions generally to the term of one year, and Mr. Pitt obſerved, that he ſhould have leſs objection to ſuch a propoſition, than to a limitation upon the term of the reſtrictions only. The amendment was however withdrawn, in order to be offered afterwards as a clauſe in the intended act of parliament. It was after this debate, that, the indiſpoſition, which Mr. Fox had contracted in his return from the continent, having increaſed, he thought proper to retire to Bath, where he continued during the following month.

The reſolutions were carried to the houſe of lords for their concurrence, and were debated on the twenty-ſecond and the day following. They were diſcuſſed at conſiderable length by doctor Watſon, biſhop of Landaff, who began with adverting to the ſpeech of lord Camden reſpecting them, in which that nobleman appeared to have taken it for granted, that the lords of the bedchamber might generally be expected to vote conformably to the inclination of the perſon by whom they were appointed. Doctor Watſon knew that ſuch an inſinuation was not uncommon reſpecting the lords of the bedchamber, the ſixteen peers of Scotland and the bench of biſhops. But he ſpurned the imputation with contempt. He felt it to be injurious to himſelf, and he believed it to be injurious to the other noble perſons to whom it was applied. Paſſing to the direct ſubject of debate, he proceeded to ſtate the form of proceeding which he conceived they ought to have adopted. It became them to have empowered the prince of Wales, for he did not queſtion their competency to empower, by a commiſſion under the great ſeal or otherwiſe, to take upon him the legiſlative authority of his father. The conſtitution being thus reſtored to its vigour, the complete parliament might then have proceeded to the nomination of a regent with or without reſtrictions as they thought moſt proper. He fully admitted the power and right of the legiſlature to have created whatever regent and whatever powers they deemed expedient; but he at the ſame time contended, that they were ſo completely bound to one individual mode of proceeding upon this ſubject, that they could not ſet it aſide without violating the ſtrongeſt and moſt irrefragable analogy of law. In the caſe of the king's demiſe the law had clearly and poſitively ſaid, The truſt ſhall not revert to the community at large; the community knows the miſchief of ſuch a reverſion and will have nothing to do with it; it ſhall go in the eſtabliſhed order of ſucceſſion entire to the heir. Such was the expreſs declaration of law in the one caſe, and the analogy of law ſpoke the ſame language in the other. The ſame argument applied to the ſort of power to be exerciſed by the regent. It had been ſaid, that in the conſtitution of a regency, no more power ought to be given than was ſufficient to carry on the executive government with vigour and effect. Upon the truth of this propoſition doctor Watſon grounded his argument againſt the propriety of any reſtrictions. The whole regal power was neceſſary to enable the regent to carry on the government for the public good. Was it inſinu-

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ated or asserted that the king had an atom more of regal power belonging to him from the constitution, than was sufficient to enable him to carry on the government? Doctor Watson particularly argued respecting the restriction that regarded the peerage. He could himself see no sufficient grounds of expediency for this limitation; but, if he could, he was not at liberty to vote either for the limitation itself, or for the mode of establishing it. The two houses of parliament had no more right to suspend the law, than the king had; and it should never be said of him, that he concurred in violating the constitution of his country, by allowing to them either the right of legislating or of suspending, though but for an hour, any portion of the royal prerogative. Doctor Watson declared, that there was not one member of that house, who would not sacrifice his fortune and his life to keep the crown upon the head of him that wore it. The constitution had given to the king of England no power to do wrong; and, if it had, they were certain that their monarch would not exercise the power. With respect to the household, if they followed the cool conclusions of dispassionate reasoning, the most proper mode of proceeding would be, to extinguish that part of it which was for the present useless. But, as it often happened in private life that men's feelings were in opposition to their judgment, so had it happened to him upon this occasion. He felt a reluctance to the abolishing any part of the royal household, while there remained a hope of the king's recovery. He wished the sovereign in that event to feel, not the shadowy comfort of seeing the same faces about his person, but the solid comfort of knowing that his subjects had not out of a selfish and parsimonious regard to themselves seized the opportunity of his misfortune to tarnish the splendour and diminish the dignity of royalty. But though he wished not the household to be diminished, he would not have it continue useless to the public; it ought to be transferred to the regent. Such were the whole of his sentiments upon the subject; for he must declare that he thought so well of the queen, as to be under no manner of apprehension that she would ever put herself at the head of a party in opposition to the government of her son.

The earl of Sandwich moved an amendment upon the peerage resolution to limit its duration, which was rejected upon a division, contents 67, not contents 93. In the course of the debate a question arose respecting the legality of originating a peerage in either house of parliament. The dispute originated from an unguarded expression of lord Camden, but it seemed at length to be unanimously agreed, that such an honour could not be thus originated but at the immediate instance of the king or his representative.

Upon the resolution respecting the management of the household, lord Thurlow spoke with great animation. He completely concurred with the other side of the house, that the man, who endeavoured to sow dissentions in the royal family, and to set the different branches at variance, deserved the execrations of his country, and acted with a degree of baseness beyond any other species of human depravity. He declared that it was far beyond his power to conjecture, in what manner it was conceived to be possible to place the king

in the hands of his royal conſort, without giving her the ſuperintendence and controul of the houſhold. If they rejected a part of the reſolution, they might as well proceed to treat the king as an ordinary individual, and put him upon board wages, or ſend him to one of thoſe boarding houſes that take in unfortunate invalids. Let the houſe remember, that the queen was to have the care of her royal patient, not as a wretched being, deſtitute of friends, an obſcure individual without name, without honour, and without reputation, forſaken by all the world, but as a king, whom his people looked up to with loyalty and affection, whom they anxiouſly wiſhed to ſee enabled to reaſcend his throne, and again diſtributing bleſſings to a grateful nation. As far as his voice could go, he ſhould utter it with energy and ſincerity, to claim for the king all the dignity that ought to attend upon the royal perſon in the hour of his indiſpoſition; and who would dare to refuſe his demand? No man, alive to the leaſt ſenſe of loyalty, alive to a principle of compaſſion, alive to any one generous feeling, could lend his hand to ſo cruel a dilapidation. The very intention was inhuman in the extreme; it muſt operate like a total extinction of pity for the royal ſufferer, an utter deſertion and oblivion of him to whom they were bound in the moſt inexpreſſible obligations. Lord Thurlow deſired not to be underſtood as having intended by his argument or the warmth with which he had uttered it, to preclude the debate, or bear hard upon thoſe lords who had taken the other ſide of the queſtion. He had ſpoken with no view of that ſort, but from feelings, an exemption from which muſt have rendered him hateful to himſelf.

Lord Rawdon, who had moved the amendment, repelled the attack of the chancellor. Ought he to ſtand expoſed for his conduct, as a member of the legiſlature, and which had flowed from no motives of party or faction, to ſo unqualified an attack, and to hear it inſinuated that he had acted with irreverence and diſloyalty? The expreſſion it was true had been retracted as ſoon as it was uttered, but he muſt contend that it ought not to have been uſed at all, and he muſt inform the noble ſpeaker, that he would be allowed the ſame credit for candour in that houſe, which he had always given to lord Thurlow himſelf. The lord chancellor replied with that inflexibleneſs and auſterity for which he is remarkable. Lord Rawdon had totally miſconceived him, if he ſuppoſed that he had retracted one ſyllable of his remarks. On the contrary, he now felt it neceſſary to reſume his ground, and in the fulleſt manner to deny, that he had either retracted or meant to retract one obſervation or one word of what had eſcaped him. The amendment was rejected upon a diviſion, and a proteſt was entered againſt the whole ſyſtem of the reſolutions, and ſigned by fifty-ſeven peers.

In this ſtage of the buſineſs an incident occurred, which excited ſome degree of curioſity, and gave riſe to animadverſion in the members of oppoſition in the houſe of commons. The next meaſure Mr. Pitt intended to adopt was the appointing a committee of both houſes, to communicate to the prince of Wales the ſort of regency which it was intended to inſtitute, and to expreſs the hope of the

ne two houſes that the prince would onſent to take upon himſelf this nportant truſt. It had been under-ood that this reſolution was to be noved firſt in the houſe of lords on he twenty-ſixth, but upon maturer onſideration the deſign in this re-pect was altered almoſt at the mo-nent of execution, and it was moved by Mr. Pitt in the houſe of com-nons on the following day. It was nſinuated that this incident aroſe rom the pertinaciouſneſs of the chancellor, but Mr. Pitt fully repelled his idea, and declared, that, the onger adminiſtration reflected upon heir plan of proceedings, the more they were determined uniformly to purſue it to its completion. Mr. She-ridan moved an amendment upon Mr. Pitt's reſolution, the words of which were extracted from the letter the miniſter had written to the prince of Wales, and which declared the re-ſtrictions to be formed on the ſup-poſition, that the king's illneſs was only temporary, and might be of no long duration. Mr. Pitt objected to this amendment, as being a par-tial ſelection of words from his let-ter, detached from their context and explanation; and obſerved, that the temporary nature of the reſtrictions was clearly ſignified by the words of the reſolution, which declared them to be ſuch, as "the circum-ſtances of the caſe appeared at pre-ſent to require." Mr. Sheridan en-deavoured in ſome meaſure to meet the objection of Mr. Pitt, by adopt-ing the ſubſequent words of the let-ter, and adding to his amendment, that, if unfortunately the royal indiſ-poſition ſhould be protracted to a more diſtant period, it would be open hereafter to the wiſdom of parliament to re-conſider theſe pro-viſions. The amendment was re-jected.

Another ſubject of diſcuſſion oc-curred in the ſame debate. It had been repeatedly whiſpered, that the prince of Wales had been treated with great diſreſpect and neglect by the members of adminiſtration, and Mr. Grey thought proper on this occaſion to recapitulate the inſtances of neglect. The prince had been ſummoned to the examination of the king's phyſicians by the privy coun-cil, in the ſame manner as the other members; Mr. Pitt had not com-municated his project of regency to the prince till after he had opened it in the houſe of commons; and the manner in which it had been com-municated had been inattentive and neglectful. Mr. Grey deſired in this enumeration to be underſtood as ſpeaking his private ſentiments, with-out the conſultation or concurrence of any individual.

Mr. Pitt thanked Mr. Grey for having given him an opportunity to vindicate his conduct. He ſaid that the ſummons mentioned in the firſt inſtance was not that which had been addreſſed to ordinary members of the council, but only to the princes of the blood. He had not commu-nicated his reſolutions to the prince till the queſtion of right had been decided, becauſe that deciſion might have ſuperſeded the neceſſity of par-ticular proviſions. The prince of Wales by the conſtitution of our go-vernment poſſeſſed no political capa-city, and of conſequence the miniſters had not concluded it to be their duty to receive orders from him. They felt, that theirs was the reſponſibility for every ſtep they adopted, and they knew that theirs of conſequence ought to be the direction. The

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communication had not been ſent, as rumour had declared, by a livery ſervant, but by a meſſenger diſpatched for that eſpecial purpoſe. No man, Mr. Pitt ſaid, was more ignorant of etiquette than himſelf, but he was not conſcious of the moſt diſtant intention to ſhew diſreſpect. He had never tranſmitted diſpatches to the king in any other manner, and he as little thought of offending the prince of Wales in this inſtance, as he had ever done of offending the king.

Mr. Burke remarked, that the diſreſpect to the prince, of which he was prepared to complain, was of a more ſubſtantial nature than a matter of form. A dreadful calamity had fallen upon the family, and in this ſituation there was an evident and groſs want of humanity in Mr. Pitt's conduct. Who ought to be conſulted in the caſe of an affliction falling on the father, ſo ſoon as the eldeſt ſon? It was in his mind a great indecency to have forced on the debate of the queſtion of right, without having previouſly communicated it to the prince of Wales, eſpecially after the ſatisfactory, reſpectful, but at the ſame time dignified manner, in which the diſcuſſion had been deprecated by the duke of York. Mr. Burke took notice of the manner in which the buſineſs of the two houſes was at this moment conducted. They had been taught on the preceding day to think, that the addreſs would have come on in the houſe of peers, and he could not tell why the mode of proceeding had been altered. Perhaps the other houſe was not yet recovered from the effect of the extraordinary burſt of the pathetic which had been exhibited the other evening; they had not dried their eyes and been reſtored to their former placidity. The tears which had been ſhed upon the occaſion to which he alluded, were not the tears of patriots for dying laws, but of lords for their expiring places. The iron tears, that flowed down Pluto's cheek, rather reſembled the diſmal bubbling of the Styx, than the gentle murmuring ſtreams of Aganippe. Mr. Burke commented upon the approbation Mr. Pitt expreſſed for the amendment of Mr. Pulteney, calculated to make the regency annual. If they intended to inſtitute a republic, he alſo ſhould approve of the amendment; but, if ſuch were their intention, why did not they proceed in a manly way, and openly declare their deſign? If he were aſked, Was he averſe to ſuch a ſpeculation? he would anſwer, No; but he knew that a republic could not be ſpeculated upon in compliance with the principles of our conſtitution. He loved, he revered, he adored the true principles of republicaniſm; but was that the mode of inſtituting a republic? Venerable and illuſtrious ſhade, exclaimed Mr. Burke, how art thou proſtituted, defamed, and degraded! Oh fabric! the labour of centuries, the admiration of ages, the mother of heroiſm, cemented by the blood of patriots, how art thou libelled and diſhonoured! As well might it be ſaid, that the mutilated ſhadows of the opera-houſe were the repreſentatives of heroes, the true and perfect Cæſars, Catos, and Brutuſes of Rome, as that ſo ſtrange and diſcordant a chaos could be the repreſentative of a real republic.

The reſolution being carried up to the houſe of lords, an amendment, ſimilar to that of Mr. Sheridan, was moved by the duke of Northum-

Northumberland, and was rejected without a diviſion. On the thirtieth the reſolutions were preſented to the prince of Wales by a committee of both houſes, and the anſwer of the prince was ſimilar in its tenour to the concluſion of his reply to Mr. Pitt, at the ſame time adding, that he regarded the limitations as having been approved by the two houſes only as a temporary meaſure, founded in a loyal hope, in which he ardently participated, that the king's diſorder might not be of long duration. The fifth reſolution was on the ſame day communicated to the queen on the part of the two houſes, by the earl of Ayleſbury, lord chamberlain, and earl Waldegrave, maſter of the horſe to her majeſty.

On the following day lord Camden moved in the houſe of lords, that the lord chancellor be directed by authority of the two houſes of parliament, to iſſue a commiſſion in the name of the ſovereign, for the purpoſe of immediately opening the ſeſſion of parliament. He ſtated, that the preſent meaſure was that which adminiſtration had judged the moſt proper and unexceptionable, as a preliminary to the paſſing into a law the reſolutions which had already been agreed to by the two houſes. If any peer thought proper to object to the meaſure he ſuggeſted, he conceived it would be incumbent upon him to propoſe ſome expedient, that might be more wiſe, practicable and conſtitutional. He was open to conviction, and would willingly adopt a better mode of proceeding, if a better could be ſuggeſted. In reality parliament could not take a ſingle ſtep under its preſent circumſtances; without the king it was a mere headleſs trunk, perfectly inanimate, and incapable of any proceeding that aſſumed the character, or aimed at the efficacy of legiſlation. Lord Camden paſſed an eulogium upon the reign of king Henry the Sixth, the beginning of which he conceived to afford a precedent that would perfectly juſtify the preſent reſolution. It was to that period that we owed the common law of the land, which from thence had been handed down invariably from age to age. It was upon the practice of that day, that lord Coke had founded himſelf in every part of his works. There never was a period of greater tranquillity and peace than the firſt twenty years of king Henry the Sixth. The preſent generation therefore would betray extreme ingratitude, if they forgot their obligations to a reign, that had produced as ſound lawyers, as able ſtateſmen and as honeſt magiſtrates, as any ſubſequent periods of our hiſtory. They were not perhaps ſo well read in Latin and Greek, nor ſo much familiariſed with the refinements of luxury as the lawyers of the preſent day; but it was not therefore to be ſuppoſed that they did not poſſeſs as ſound underſtandings, as much good ſenſe, and as clear a conception of law and the conſtitution. Lord Camden enforced the precedent of king Henry the Sixth by an example from the conduct of lord chancellor Hardwicke, who had put the great ſeal in 1754 to two commiſſions, one for opening a ſeſſion of parliament, and another for paſſing a bill, when the king was ill and his life pronounced to be in danger. Lord Camden adverted to the act of king Henry the Eighth reſpecting the ſign manual, and declared, that he conceived the ſtatute to be merely affirmative, and that the ſole object of it was to declare that the king might ſignify his royal

assent to a bill by commission, issued under the authority of letters patent, and subscribed with the royal signature. But it by no means warranted an inference, that therefore the royal assent could not be signified by any other means.

Lord Stormont denied the truth of the construction that lord Camden had put upon the statute of king Henry the Eighth, and quoted an act of the first of Philip and Mary, the object of which was to take off the attainder attempted to be passed in the last year of the preceding king upon the duke of Norfolk, which declared the act authorising the attainder to be of no effect, as being passed by a commission not acting under the royal signature. He asked, was there not a mode of proceeding within the reach of the two houses that could be reconciled to all the limitations? What prevented them from adapting the measure recommended by the bishop of Landaff, and addressing the prince of Wales to take upon him the exercise of the legislative authority of the crown? The proceedings of the two houses had tended more within the last three months to introduce and sanction republican principles, than they had ever done since he was in the political world. He railed not at republican principles; he knew that a republic was beautiful in theory, but in the nature of things incompatible with the practice of our constitution. He was not however so ignorant of what passed in his own country and other parts of the world, but he could perceive that republican principles made a greater progress than ever. A certain philosopher had stated it to be the misfortune of Englishmen, that they were accustomed in their early years to classical studies, because such a mode of education gave them a premature prejudice in favour of the government of Greece and Rome, and inspired too strong an idea of the independence of man. It was indeed certain that such were the effects of the system of British education.

In the form of the commission as presented by lord Camden, the names of the prince of Wales, the duke of York, and the king's brothers were inserted as commissioners; but they were withdrawn in the house at their particular request. A difficulty arose out of this circumstance, as the rejection of their names must necessarily be recorded in the journals; and ministers were blamed in terms of some asperity for not having previously demanded their consent. The embarrassment was at length removed by adding in the journals a specific notice, that the names of the princes of the blood had been withdrawn at their immediate request. The resolution was sent to the house of commons for their concurrence; and, in the course of the debate upon the subject, Mr. Powys endeavoured to invalidate the precedent of lord Hardwicke, by observing, that king George the Second had at that time been incapable from illness from meeting his parliament, but was perfectly capable of judging and deciding upon every proceeding of government. At length the commons declared that they concurred with the house of lords in this resolution, and the session was opened in the proposed form on the third of February.

The resolutions on the subject of the regency had undergone so considerable a degree of discussion previously to this period, that the bill, which was brought in to carry them into

into effect, was attended with no remarkable debate, till the seventh of February, when the clauses came to be separately discussed. The first clause that occasioned any considerable remark, was a clause for preventing the three branches of the legislature from repealing the act, by which the succession to the crown is regulated, and the acts for perpetuating the religious establishments of England and Scotland. Upon this clause it was remarked by Mr. Pitt to sir Archibald Macdonald, that it was inserted in conformity to the example of other regency bills; that its provisions, which had been thought necessary by our ancestors, probably originated in a superfluous degree of caution; and that undoubtedly it could have no other meaning, than to prevent parliament from repealing the acts in question without mature deliberation.

The next clause was also built upon the example of former regency bills, and was inserted, as Mr. Pitt said, among other reasons, because its omission was more likely to be a subject of remark than the suffering it to stand as usual. This clause provided, that, if the prince of Wales should at any time marry a papist, the powers and authorities conferred upon him by the bill should then cease and determine. An amendment to this clause was moved by Mr. Rolle and sir William Dolben, the purpose of which was, to extend the provision of the act to the case of the prince of Wales being at any time proved to be married, either in fact or in law, to a papist. Mr. Rolle said, that, if any person would step forward, and confirm the declaration, which had been solemnly made upon the subject two years ago by Mr. Fox, he should be satisfied. By that declaration he had been convinced when it was made, nor did he now mean to impeach its credibility; but, as doubts and scruples were still entertained among the people at large, he wished those doubts to be effectually silenced and set at rest for ever. The conduct of Mr. Rolle, in thus reviving a subject, which must necessarily be attended with so much indelicacy and pain towards the individual in question, was treated with great asperity by the members of opposition. He however obtained his purpose in extorting the most explicit declarations from those members, and from Mr. Grey in particular, of the falshood of the rumours to which he alluded. Mr. Dundas spoke of the absence of Mr. Fox, and declared, that he entertained so high an opinion of his sincerity, as to be confident, that no consideration of health or any other circumstance would have prevented his attendance even at the risk of his life, if any thing had occurred to induce him to alter the opinion he had entertained when the subject had been brought under discussion on a former occasion. On that opinion Mr. Dundas perfectly relied, and undoubtedly the house and the nation might depend upon it with the most entire confidence. He however differed in opinion from Mr. Welbore Ellis, who stated the royal marriage act of the present king as rendering the fact that had excited the alarms of Mr. Rolle impossible, and of consequence as affording a complete answer to every doubt that might be suggested upon the subject. Mr. Dundas could not admit, that the effect of the act of settlement, which declared, that, if the heir to the crown should marry a papist, he would forfeit his right to the succession,

ceſſion, was virtually ſuperſeded by a ſubſequent act which did not ſpecifically ſo much as mention the law already in exiſtence. The amendment of Mr. Rolle was negatived without a diviſion.

The next clauſe that excited diſcuſſion, was a clauſe providing for the diſpoſal of the king's privy purſe to the amount of ſixty thouſand pounds per annum. Of this ſum ſixteen thouſand were given to the queen for the purpoſe of enabling her to continue certain charitable diſburſements which the king had arranged, and the remainder was directed to be inveſted in the ſtocks or other ſecurities. It was moved by ſir William Moleſworth that this remainder ſhould be paid into the privy purſe of the regent; and, the houſe having divided upon the amendment, there appeared, ayes, 101, noes, 156. An amendment moved by Mr. Sheridan, to ſeparate the ſuperior officers of the houſhold from thoſe that were placed under the direction of the queen, was rejected by a ſimilar majority.

The names of the council of advice to the queen were next brought under diſcuſſion; and thoſe propoſed by Mr. Pitt were, the preſent archbiſhops of Canterbury and York, the preſent chancellor and chief juſtice of the king's bench, together with the four great officers of the houſhold, the lord chamberlain, the lord ſteward, the maſter of the horſe, and the groom of the ſtole for the time being. The reaſon for this diſtinction was, that the appointment to the four firſt of theſe offices when vacant, was intended to be in the regent, while the four others were to be veſted in the queen, to the independence of whoſe juriſdiction it was deemed neceſſary, that none of her counſellors ſhould directly or indirectly be appointed by the repreſentative of the royal authority. Lord North moved that the names of the duke of York, prince Edward and the king's brothers ſhould be added to the council. Mr. Pitt oppoſed this, upon the ground that it would appear to be a ſlight upon the prince of Wales, to have his brothers nominated the members of a council from which he was excluded. Mr. Burke treated the objection with great aſperity, and ſaid, that the excluſion amounted to no leſs than an outlawry, proſcription and attainder of the whole houſe of Brunſwic. The motion of lord North was rejected upon a diviſion.

The laſt clauſe that was debated in the regency bill, and which contained principles not previouſly ſtated in the reſolutions of the two houſes, was relative to the proceedings that ſhould be neceſſary upon the recovery of the ſovereign in order to his reſuming the royal authority. It was provided, that, when it ſhould appear to the queen and the majority of her council that the king was reſtored to health, they ſhould be authoriſed to ſignify it under their hands to the lord preſident of the privy council, who ſhould cauſe it to be recorded in full council, and, having ſo done, ſhould ſend a copy of it to the lord mayor of London and cauſe it to be printed in the Gazette. The king was then authoriſed to ſummon nine privy counſellors, not members of the council to the queen, by the advice of any ſix of whom he ſhould be authoriſed to iſſue a proclamation, counter-ſigned by the ſix privy counſellors, declaratory of his intention to reſume the regal functions, and upon theſe formalities the functions

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of the regent ſhould immediately ceaſe. It was farther provided that after this proclamation parliament ſhould forthwith aſſemble for the tranſaction of buſineſs.

Mr. Powys, who had upon all occaſions diſtinguiſhed himſelf as the foremoſt champion of the privileges of the houſe of commons, was vehement in his oppoſition to theſe proviſions. He was determined to ſupport the dignity and loyalty of the two houſes of parliament, which were groſsly inſulted by an attempt to ſuperſede their rights, and put them into the hands of a hackneyed and garbled junto. He perceived, that there was an intention to treat the legiſlature, as Mr. Pitt had formerly treated that houſe. Within the courſe of a few years he had witneſſed a variety of extraordinary things. He had ſeen the executive power uſed to degrade and diſgrace the houſe of commons; he had ſeen the lords and commons made the inſtruments of mutilating the executive power; and that houſe was now called upon to be the inſtrument of its own humiliation, and to declare itſelf not fit to be truſted with the reinſtatement of the ſovereign. He hoped however, that they were not ſo loſt to a ſenſe of their own honour, as to ſubſcribe to ſo falſe and unconſtitutional a doctrine. Mr. Dundas replied to Mr. Powys. He could not agree, that the king ſhould be reſtrained from his right of governing, till the two houſes had addreſſed him to reſume his authority. It had been neceſſary for parliament to examine into the incapacity of the ſovereign, ſince, out of that incapacity, aroſe their right to delegate the royal authority. Upon the king's recovery they would have no ſuch right, the right of the king being hereditary and indefeaſible, whenever he was in a capacity to exerciſe it. Could it be borne, that, when the king was recovered, the regent ſhould come down to parliament and make a ſpeech as the depoſitory of royal authority, while the ſovereign was to be a ſpectator of the pomp from the windows of Buckingham houſe? The ſyſtem propoſed by Mr. Pitt went as near as poſſible to the ſtrait line of the conſtitution, guarding the ſafe return of the king to his throne, and at the ſame time ſurrounding that return with ſo many proviſions and checks as to render it impoſſible for a reſumption to take place in any way injurious or dangerous to the country. Mr. Sheridan ſtarted the ſuppoſition of the king's being permitted to reſume his authority, appointing a new regency, and even perhaps relapſing again, before parliament could aſſemble; and he reaſoned upon the poſſibility of the king's thus delegating his authority when he was within the realm, from the precedent of king Henry the Sixth. Mr. Pitt, ſir Richard Arden and ſir Archibald Macdonald were however deciſively of opinion, that the king could not make a general delegation of his authority while he remained within the realm.

Mr. Pitt brought up certain clauſes, enabling parliament in its preſent ſeſſion to grant a penſion or permanent office to any perſon filling the ſituation of lord chancellor, or to any perſon reſigning the ſituation of one of the twelve judges. Mr. Pulteney did not think proper to offer his clauſe for limiting the duration of the regency, but preſented an amendment which was accepted, limiting the duration of the peerage reſtriction to the term of three years. The bill paſſed the

houſe of commons on the twelfth of February, and was carried up to the houſe of lords on the following day.

Upon the ſecond reading of the bill in the upper houſe, the duke of Grafton expreſſed his regret at having been incapacitated by illneſs from ſupporting by his preſence ſo important a meaſure. He declared, that the ſyſtem which had been adopted, had in every part of it his moſt entire approbation, it being in his judgment, of all the modes that could have been purſued, the moſt conſonant to the true principles of the conſtitution. There was one point however upon which he wiſhed to animadvert. He deſired that he might not be concluded, from his general approbation of the bill, to declare his opinion that the act of uniformity was infallible, or that it ought not at a future period to be rendered a ſubject of diſcuſſion and reconſideration. Lord Southampton, brother to the duke of Grafton, and groom of the ſtole to the prince of Wales, embraced this occaſion of declaring the great affection and honour he entertained for the duke, at the ſame time that he condemned in the moſt unqualified terms the whole ſeries of meaſures that had been adopted by government upon the ſubject of the regency.

The particular clauſes of the bill came under the conſideration of the houſe of lords on the ſeventeenth and eighteenth of February, and a few amendments were introduced in this ſtage of the buſineſs. The power of the regent in particular was limited with reſpect to the peerages to be conferred upon the members of the royal family, to ſuch of them as ſhould be reſident in Great Britain, and a clauſe was introduced for veſting in the queen the guardianſhip of ſuch of the royal children as had not attained the age of twenty years. Lord Rawdon alſo moved the amendment of Mr. Sheridan for ſeparating the great officers of the houſhold from the perſons to be placed under the controul of the queen, which was rejected upon a diviſion.

CHAP. VII.

Reſumption of Royal Authority. Parliamentary Proceedings. Army. Navy. Ordnance. Treaty of Great Britain and Pruſſia. Shop Tax repealed. Pedlars' Act amended. Shrub Felony Act. County Election Act ſuſpended. Motion to Repeal the Teſt Act. Stanhope's Church Reform Bill. Tithe Bill. Bill to commemorate the Revolution.

SUCH was the progreſs that had been made in this intereſting and extraordinary tranſaction, when its farther proceedngs were ſuddenly ſuſpended by the ſymptoms which now diſcovered themſelves of the king's recovery. On the twelfth of February he was declared by his phyſicians to be in a ſtate of progreſſive amendment, and on the ſeventeenth, in order to expreſs ſtill more ſtrongly the favourable ſymptoms

toms which daily appeared, they declared the king to be in a ſtate of convaleſcence. Accordingly the lord chancellor upon the third day of the intended committee of the houſe of lords upon the regency bill, thought proper to move an adjournment of all farther proceedings upon the ſubject. On the twenty-fifth the king was declared by his phyſicians free from complaint, and on the twenty-ſeventh the reports of his health, which had daily been publiſhed, were diſcontinued by the royal command. The two houſes of parliament continued to ſit by various adjournments till the tenth of March, when the lord chancellor, commiſſioned by the ſovereign, addreſſed them in a ſpeech, and the ordinary buſineſs of the ſeſſion regularly commenced.

The termination, which was thus put upon the project of temporary government that had been formed, may probably be regarded as favourable to Great Britain. The experiment upon our conſtitution, the purpoſe of which had been adopted by the two houſes of parliament, might in ſome reſpects have been beneficial and ſalutary. It was nothing leſs than an enquiry how far the executive government might be ſtripped of ſeveral of its prerogatives without injury to the ſtate. But though perſons of independent and comprehenſive underſtandings would certainly not have regarded ſuch a trial with averſion, yet it muſt be acknowledged to have been in ſome degree critical. An inefficient government, though productive it may be of great benefit in the ſequel, muſt in the interval have been attended with marks of ſluggiſhneſs and imbecility. This weakneſs might immediately have redounded to the advantage of the community at large, but an advantage might alſo have been taken of it by ſome power in the ſtate, whoſe operations would be ſtill more injurious to the rights of citizens, than the miſconduct of the executive government. The peerage reſtriction threw an additional weight into the ſcale of the moſt exceptionable and ill conſtructed branch of our conſtitution. The proviſion for ſeparating the royal houſhold from the other appendages of the monarchy, wore a ſtill more threatening appearance. A philoſophical patriot would probably have felt little reluctance to have ſeen prerogative reduced within as narrow limits as the wiſdom or caprice of the legiſlature could deſire. But the prerogatives, that were taken away from the monarch or his repreſentative, ought to have been extinguiſhed, not placed in other hands for the counteraction and controul of his meaſures. The influence of office and emolument is not the pureſt and moſt admirable branch of any government; but whatever influence of this kind is ſuffered to exiſt, ought to be placed in reſponſible and conſtitutional hands. It was a new ſpectacle in the hiſtory of mankind to ſee a nation paying a very large annual ſum for the purpoſe of conſolidating a body of men, whoſe intereſt it ſhould be to thwart and embarraſs the proceedings of its oſtenſible ſervants. One of the radical errors of the patrons of this ſyſtem was the forming themſelves upon precedent; for, though it muſt be acknowledged that they did not ſervilely follow the path of any individual precedent, yet it is equally fair to confeſs that they ſufficiently imbibed the general ſpirit of former regencies and minorities. Former regencies reſtricted and divided the monarchical

prerogatives, and the conſequence was weakneſs, anarchy and diſorder. After a certain period the rightful monarch ſucceeded, and the characteriſtics of the regency were ſuperſeded and forgotten. But this would probably not have been the caſe in the preſent inſtance. The temporary form of government would have led men in the preſent age of experiment and diſcovery to meditate upon forms of government in general. The judgment of the wiſer, and therefore the ſtronger part of the nation, would have ſelected ſuch circumſtances from our own as were moſt conducive to liberty and happineſs, and would not have rejected the improvements that the examples of other countries and other ages might ſuggeſt.

There was another conſideration, that rendered the ſudden cloſe that was put to the project of regency, a ſource of conſolation and pleaſure. Of this we can only ſpeak with great diffidence and uncertainty, at the ſame time that it was a matter too generally reported and too generally believed to ſuffer us to paſs it over in ſilence. The plan of an adminiſtration for the prince regent appears to have been early digeſted by the political party whoſe pretenſions he favoured, and this plan received his approbation. But upon farther reflection he is ſaid to have conceived ſome diſpleaſure, particularly at ſeeing a man, with whom he was in habits of conſiderable intimacy, to whom he owed perſonal obligations, and who poſſeſſed ſuch extraordinary and eminent talents as Mr. Sheridan, deſtined to an office, which did not entitle him to a ſeat in the cabinet. Influenced by theſe conſiderations, he remonſtrated with the duke of Portland upon the ſubject, and ſtated the propriety of Mr. Sheridan's being named as chancellor of the exchequer. The duke of Portland is ſaid to have refuſed his conſent to this new arrangement. The prince on the other hand ſhowed no diſpoſition to recede from his propoſal, and was even thought to have conceived the idea, if it were not ultimately acceded to, of forming an adminiſtration, in which Mr. Sheridan ſhould be the principal figure, without the aſſiſtance of the duke of Portland and his friends. It is difficult to pronounce accurately upon a tranſaction, which reſts only upon univerſal report, and is unauthenticated by any original documents. We cannot decide how far a young man like the prince of Wales might be led by the warmth of his friendſhip and the ebullition of his gratitude; but it is reaſonable to believe that Mr. Sheridan never lent his countenance to ſo extravagant a project. The inhabitants of this country, devoured with ariſtocratical prejudices, have always felt a great reluctance to ſee the reins of government in the hands of a man, neither diſtinguiſhed by fortune nor noble deſcent; and Mr. Sheridan muſt tenfold have increaſed every prepoſſeſſion of this nature, by deſerting the party under whoſe auſpices he entered into political life. The government of Britain has never yet been conducted without the ſupport of a numerous body of men of eſtate and pecuniary influence, and Mr. Sheridan muſt not only have counted upon the oppoſition of thoſe whom he had himſelf oppoſed for a ſeries of years, but of all thoſe who had hitherto concurred with, favoured and admired him. Common ſenſe therefore, and that ſort of prudence which enables a man to ſee his own welfare

fare and intereſt, if we ſhould be unjuſt enough to deny him any higher ſpecies of diſcernment, muſt have reſtrained him from embarking in an undertaking that could only have terminated in immediate ſhipwreck. Meanwhile the internal miſunderſtandings that had ſprung up among the members of the intended government, together with the reſtrictions and incapacities that had been impoſed upon them by parliament, gave a gloomy preſage of their future adminiſtration, and prepared the people in general to feel the higheſt ſatisfaction in the reſtoration of their former ſovereign to his authority.

In the ſpeech delivered by the chancellor in the name of the king to the two houſes of parliament, the king conveyed to them his warmeſt acknowledgments for the additional proofs they had given of their attachment to his perſon, and their concern for the honour and intereſts of his crown, and the ſecurity and good government of his dominions. He communicated to them the treaty of alliance which he had concluded with the king of Pruſſia, and mentioned the endeavours he had employed to prevent as far as poſſible the extenſion of hoſtilities in the north, and to manifeſt his deſire of a general pacification. In the converſation that took place upon the motion of addreſs in return for the ſpeech that had been delivered, earl Stanhope expreſſed a doubt as to the propriety of their preſent proceeding. He had no heſitation in giving full confidence to the fact of the king's recovery, but was the preſent meaſure ſtrictly parliamentary? The two houſes had determined that the king was rendered incapable by illneſs of executing the duties of his office, and they had juſt declared their opinion in the proviſions of the regency bill, reſpecting the manner in which it was proper he ſhould reſume the royal authority. If the king could of himſelf declare his recovery, ſuch proviſions had been ſuperfluous and nugatory. Lord Thurlow replied, that no declaration of the two houſes upon occaſion of the king's illneſs could take from him the right of governing, nor any clauſe in ſuch a bill interrupt the reſumption of his powers upon the reſtoration of his health. For himſelf he wiſhed the regency bill and all its paſſages to be buried in everlaſting oblivion, and he truſted that there never would be any provocation to recollect it. It was accordingly on the ſame day moved by lord Hawkeſbury that the bill be rejected. The two houſes accompanied their addreſs to the king with an addreſs of congratulation to the queen upon the fortunate termination of her late calamity.

The ſupplies for the army, navy and ordnance, were voted in the houſe of commons on the ſixteenth, and the eſtimate of the navy in particular exceeded that of the preceding year by two thouſand men. The ordinary ſervice of the ordnance was ſtated at 220,000 l. and the extraordinaries at 218,000 l. The latter article was not voted till two days later, and gave occaſion to ſome farther diſcuſſion reſpecting the propriety of the fortifications planned by the duke of Richmond for the defence of the Weſt India iſlands. General Burgoyne moved for an eſtimate of the whole expence that would be incurred in theſe fortifications, and an eſtimate of the number of men that would be neceſſary to man them. He acknowledged, that fortifications might ſometimes protect the iſlands againſt a coup de main, and be of uſe where the ſhore afforded but a ſmall number of landing places; but they could not protect the commander of a garriſon againſt

againſt a regular invaſion, ſince the planters, apprehenſive of the devaſtations of the enemy, would oblige the governor to capitulate, while the enemy, on the other hand, when once in poſſeſſion of the iſland, would have the full uſe of the fortifications, and ſet the planters at defiance. General Burgoyne aſked members, who were now willing to vote the ſums required, whether they would be equally ready in the following year to vote double or treble the preſent number of men for the defence of the Weſt India iſlands? He added, that the climate was ſo unhealthy, that it often happened in three months after a regiment was landed there, that one third of the troops died, another third was in the hoſpital, and not more than a third was capable of anſwering the muſter roll, and doing duty. Colonel Phipps replied, that the unhealthineſs of the climate was a reaſon in favour of ſeaſoning our troops to it, and that the caſe put by general Burgoyne of a ſmall number of landing places, applied to almoſt every one of the iſlands. If the planters were ſo indifferent as to wiſh for an immediate ſurrender, the fortifications would be of uſe, by enabling the commander, even in ſpite of the planters, to preſerve the iſland till aſſiſtance could be given by our fleets. He ſaid, that in the laſt war, though our fleets were deemed equal to thoſe of the enemy, and ultimately proved themſelves ſuperior, yet iſland after iſland was captured merely for want of fortifications; while in the war that preceded it, Martinico, with the advantage of fortifications, had held out, with eight hundred men, almoſt a year, againſt a hoſtile army of fifteen thouſand men. The motions of general Burgoyne were carried in the negative. The army eſtimates gave occaſion to ſome animadverſion from general Burgoyne, upon the circumſtance of the reduced officers of the houſhold troops being permitted to ſell their commiſſions, and upon the diſmiſſion of the marquis of Lothian from the command of the firſt regiment of life guards. This nobleman was one of thoſe, who, in the late diſcuſſion of the regency, went over from the party of adminiſtration to that of oppoſition; and he was offered an exchange for another regiment, which he deemed ſo diſadvantageous that he did not chooſe to accept it. The duke of Queenſbury was at the ſame time, and for the ſame reaſon, diſmiſſed from the appointment of one of the lords of the bed-chamber; and lord Malmeſbury, late ſir James Harris, who had before been an adherent to the party of Mr. Fox, was deprived of the office of ambaſſador extraordinary to the United Provinces.

The treaty between Great Britain and Pruſſia having been ſubmitted to the two houſes, lord Stormont put a queſtion to the marquis of Carmarthen, who had lately ſucceeded to the title of duke of Leeds upon the death of his father, whether the treaty upon the table contained the whole of the engagements between the two courts, or whether, as a prevalent rumour both at home and abroad had aſſerted, England had entered into other engagements, different in their principle, and totally ſubverſive in their nature of the public treaty, converting what was in its name a defenſive alliance into a connection of a very oppoſite deſcription? Lord Stormont obſerved, that, if this rumour were true, miniſters had been guilty of a very improper behaviour, at a time, when the ſpeech at the opening of the ſeſſion had promiſed a communication of the alliance, to withhold that which conſtituted ſo material a part of it. Papers

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of public importance were ſubmitted to parliament with no other view than to enable them to form an opinion concerning, them; and, unleſs the whole of the treaty were communicated, how was it poſſible for parliament to judge of its advantages or diſadvantages? Lord Stormont proceeded to animadvert upon the conduct of Great Britain in the late miſunderſtanding between Denmark and Sweden. We had determined to offer our mediation to the contending parties, and, in caſe it were refuſed by the court of Copenhagen, then to furniſh the king of Sweden with a ſtipulated quantity of auxiliary forces. This, he ſaid, was a proceeding contrary to every principle of politics, and not founded upon the precedent of former treaties. Denmark had never done any thing adverſe to the intereſts of Great Britain, and yet we took part againſt her. Ruſſia was our natural ally; and, though a country might not always have it in her power to effect a reconciliation with her natural ally, it was always her intereſt not to do any thing to widen the breach, and render reconciliation more difficult. He laid no great ſtreſs upon the mutual gratitude of ſtates; but there were favours ſo peculiarly calculated to gratify perſonal ambition, that, if they were done by one ſovereign for another, he conceived they could not fail to be remembered; and ſuch was the favour which France did the king of Sweden in the revolution of 1772. He declared, that he could not but admire the felicity of France. He envied her not her great and powerful reſources, nor her able and accompliſhed miniſter; but he envied her ſingular good fortune in the moment of her preſent embarraſſments, in having her natural ally ſupported and aſſiſted by her natural foe. The odium of the buſineſs Great Britain with a degree of unexampled ſpirit ſuſtained; but France would probably come in for her full ſhare of the accruing advantage.

The duke of Leeds replied, that he felt it to be right to give the queſtion of lord Stormont no ſort of anſwer; and in this opinion he was ſupported by lord Thurlow. Lord Thurlow obſerved, that if the doctrine now delivered were once eſtabliſhed, no treaty with ſecret articles could ever be concluded. The queſtion of lord Stormont was the moſt pointedly and obviouſly irregular that had ever been put to a ſecretary of ſtate in any houſe of parliament; and the duke of Leeds, if he had anſwered it, would have been guilty of a high miſdemeanour. It was the duty of ſuch an officer to diſcloſe no more of the affairs of the executive government than he had it in command from the king to communicate. He was himſelf, lord Thurlow ſaid, deſtitute of the power, even if he had the inclination, to diſcloſe the circumſtance to which lord Stormont alluded; but, if he might venture to ſpeak hypothetically of the politics of the north, he could ſay that there had been ſtates, whoſe policy was ſo refined, that they thought it juſtifiable for the ſake of attaining their ends to corrupt the magiſtrates of their enemies, and found means ſo to inſinuate themſelves as to employ the natives of thoſe countries as inſtruments to feel the pulſe of the public. In that caſe, the higher and more reſpectable were the characters they could deceive, the better was the end of their artifices fulfilled. With regard to Ruſſia, he declared, he was as anxious as lord Stormont to obtain an alliance with that empire; but what was moſt deſirable was not always to be attained even by courtſhip on fair and honourable

honourable terms, and therefore wise states must resort to the line of conduct that was most likely to conduce to the attainment of their object.

One of the earliest topics of revenue that engaged the attention of parliament, exclusive of those which have already been mentioned, was Mr. Fox's annual motion for the repeal of the shop-tax. Whether it were from a conviction of the inexpediency of the tax, or from gratitude for the extraordinary popularity he enjoyed, Mr. Pitt was at length induced to consent to a measure so earnestly and unremittingly demanded by the persons immediately affected by the tax. Mr. Fox observed, that, if the law had been resisted and opposed upon the ground of mere clamour, he should have thought the giving it up to be a dangerous example; but, convinced as he was of the impolicy and partial operation of the tax, and perceiving that party spirit and political prejudice had no share in the condemnation to which it was universally exposed, he must earnestly and sincerely press for its repeal. Mr. Pitt remarked, that his opinion upon the subject had originally been, that the tax would fall not upon the retailer, but the public at large. He allowed however, that the uniform sentiment of the shop-keepers was adverse to the truth of his doctrine, and the continuance of that sentiment for so long a time was the strongest inducement to him to believe, that the retailers had not been able to find a mode of indemnifying themselves, and that mere theory ought to yield to practice and experience. He still however maintained, that, as far as argument went, he had heard nothing to induce him to change his original persuasion; and accordingly in the progress of the bill of repeal he moved an amendment in the preamble, for the purpose of leaving out the words by which the tax was pronounced "a partial and oppressive imposition, militating against the just principles of taxation."

The proposition for the repeal of the shop-tax having succeeded, Mr. Dempster moved for a repeal of the tax upon the licences of hawkers and pedlars, which had been established at the same time under the idea of a compensation to the resident shopkeepers. He was however induced to alter his proposition upon farther reflection into that of a bill to explain and amend the hawkers and pedlars' act, which, at the same time that it abolished the licence duties, should perpetuate the provisions against smuggling, and some other clauses of the former law. In the mean time Mr. Dempster thought proper, in the project of the bill which he submitted to the house of commons, to provide for the repeal of certain clauses which were insisted upon by Mr. Rose, secretary to the treasury. The first of these was a clause to prohibit any pedlar from coming within two miles of a market town, and the other to empower the justices of peace in the quarter sessions to forbid their entrance into the county in which they presided. The first was carried against Mr. Dempster, ayes 36, noes 29, and the latter rejected by a majority of one.

A bill was introduced in the course of the present session, for the purposes of extending the penalties of felony, which, by an act of the sixth of the present king, had been awarded against persons who should be convicted of breaking trees and destroying plants and shrubs during the night, to those who should be guilty of similar misdemeanours in the day-time This bill gave occasion to some degree of discussion. Mr. Sheridan, Mr. Burke and other members of the house of commons expressed their aversion

averſion to a wanton multiplication of the penal laws, and they conceived that the proprietors of trees and ſhrubs ought rather to have had recourſe to thoſe precautions againſt injury which are in the power of all men as individuals. Sir Archibald Macdonald on the other hand aſſerted, that there was a property to the amount of ſixty thouſand pounds unprotected by law in the vicinity of the metropolis; and he ſaw no reaſon why a man ſhould be puniſhed with tranſportation for ſtealing a horſe, while, as the law ſtood, a property to a much greater amount might be deſtroyed with impunity. The actual penalty that could be levied was no more than two pounds, and this operated rather as an inducement to robbery, and was conſidered merely as paying for a licence to legalize a plunder that was altogether indefinite. The injury, that ſhould render a man liable to the penalties of felony, had been fixed, as the bill originally ſtood, at the amount of five ſhillings; and, an amendment being introduced to increaſe the ſpecific ſum to ten ſhillings, the regulation was ſuffered to paſs into a law.

The bill of lord Stanhope for the regulation of county elections, which had been carried into a law in the preceding ſeſſion, had been found in the experiment to be productive of a conſiderable degree of complaint, and a motion was accordingly brought forward for its repeal. It was however argued by Mr. Pitt and ſeveral other members of the houſe of commons, that the principle of the act, that of keeping public regiſters of freeholders in each county, was in a high degree valuable, and that therefore, though many of the proviſions of the law had been found highly inexpedient, it was not deſirable entirely to ſuperſede it. A propoſition was accordingly introduced to ſuſpend the operation of the county election act, and it was agreed that this ſuſpenſion ſhould continue till forty days after the commencement of the next ſeſſion of parliament. The conſideration of the ſubject was at the ſame time referred to a committee, and at their recommendation a bill was digeſted the object of which was to revive the former law upon the ſubject, commonly called Mr. Powys's act, with certain amendments. This bill upon the motion of earl Stanhope was rejected in the houſe of lords.

On the eighth of May Mr. Beaufoy introduced the motion, which he had two years before ſubmitted to the houſe of commons, for the repeal of the corporation and teſt acts. He obſerved, that the unalterable confidence, which the diſſenters repoſed in the diſpoſition of the houſe to do juſtice to the injured, and afford relief to the oppreſſed, had induced them to renew their application to parliament. They were perfectly convinced how difficult it was even for the beſt and wiſeſt men to relinquiſh, upon the evidence of a ſingle debate, the prejudice which miſinformation had led them to adopt; and they could not forget how frequently the legiſlature had granted the requeſts, which cauſeleſs alarms had at firſt induced them to refuſe.

Mr. Fox ſupported the motion with great force and clearneſs of argument. He was perſuaded, that no human government had a right to enquire into private opinions, or to infer the future conduct of its citizens from the ſentiments they entertained. If a man ſhould publiſh his political principles, and argue in direct oppoſition to our happy conſtitution, he ought not on that account

count to be disabled from filling any office civil or military, and it was not till he carried his detestable opinions into practice, that the law was justified in seeking a remedy and punishing his conduct. The Roman Catholics had been supposed by our ancestors to entertain opinions dangerous to the state; they acknowledged a foreign authority paramount to the legislature, and a title to the crown superior to that conferred by the voice of the people. No opinions could certainly be more obnoxious than these; and yet Mr. Fox was fully persuaded that government was not entitled to interfere with them, till they expressly acted upon the dangerous doctrines they were thought to entertain. He spoke of the inference that was drawn from the supposed alliance between the church and the state, and declared, that it was an irreverent and impious opinion to maintain, that the church must depend for its existence upon the support of the political government, and not upon the evidence of its doctrines and the moral effects it produced. He concluded with observing, that he was a friend to an established religion in every country, and that he wished it might always be that which coincided with the ideas of the majority of the people. The motion was opposed by lord North and Mr. Pitt, and upon a division the numbers appeared, ayes 102, noes 122.

A bill was introduced into the house of lords by earl Stanhope for relieving the members of the church of England from various penalties and disabilities under which they laboured, and for extending freedom in matters of religion to persons of all denominations, papists excepted. The laws it chiefly intended to repeal were laws, imposing penalties upon persons who did not frequent the established worship, and prohibiting men from speaking or writing in derogation of the doctrines of the book of Common Prayer. It also repealed the laws, enjoining the eating fish on certain days, authorising the imprisonment of persons excommunicated, prohibiting the exportation of women, and declaring all persons, who should go to court, without having previously made a certain declaration, which had probably been made by no person now living, to be in the eye of the law popish recusant convicts, which was a species of outlawry. Lord Stanhope also mentioned certain canons, of which however he should not propose the repeal, because he conceived them to be at present void of the force of a law. By these canons among other things it was declared, that a person, who should bring against another a charge of impiety, should not be allowed to be complained against, as having acted out of malice or from any other motive than from the discharge of his conscience; and that no clergyman should without licence from the bishop attempt upon any pretence whatsoever to cast out any devil or devils. Lord Stanhope deprecated the objection that these laws were obsolete and never carried into execution, and undertook to produce above thirty cases within the last twenty-six years, some of them within ten, and some within one year, in which men had been persecuted under these laws, and in some instances the tables, chairs, dishes and beds of poor people had been sold by public auction to pay the penalties of not going to church.

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The bill of lord Stanhope was permitted to proceed to a ſecond reading, when it encountered a conſiderable oppoſition. Doctor Moore, archbiſhop of Canterbury, obſerved, that the words of the bill were ſo unguarded, as to cover every ſpecies of irreligion, and to countenance an effort to diſgrace Chriſtianity itſelf. If unreſtrained ſpeaking, publiſhing and writing concerning religious opinions were permitted, there was ſcarcely a miſchief to the church or to civil ſociety that imagination could frame, which might not be effected. The very foundation of religion by law eſtabliſhed might be undermined and overthrown. If a man were unfortunate enough to diſbelieve the exiſtence of a God, was he to be at liberty to diſſeminate ſo dangerous and uncomfortable a doctrine? If the atheiſt were to be allowed to defend his atheiſm by argument, he ſaw no reaſon why the thief might not be permitted to argue in behalf of theft, the murderer in defence of murder, and the traitor of treaſon. Doctor Moore inſtanced the proſecution of Woolſton, who had been convicted, under pretence of arguing for the honour of Chriſtianity, of turning the miracles of Jeſus Chriſt into ridicule, and had been fined twenty-five pounds, impriſoned for a year, and obliged to find ſecurity for his peaceable behaviour for the reſt of his life. Doctor Moore concluded with complaining, that the bill was improperly drawn, and repealed a great number of ſtatutes without ſo much as ſpecifying their names.

Doctor Warren, biſhop of Bangor, obſerved, that even at the revolution, a period in the higheſt degree favourable to religious liberty, the law obliging all perſons to attend public worſhip was not conſidered as inconſiſtent with the right of private judgment. It had remained for theſe days of licentiouſneſs to call in queſtion the propriety and wiſdom of ſuch regulations. This mode of compulſion did not militate againſt any ſort of religious liberty, ſince it did not oblige diſſenters to deſert their own congregations; and he, who could not communicate with either, might well be ſuppoſed to hold doctrines injurious to the welfare of the ſtate, and which ought not to be tolerated. Doctor Warren obſerved, that lord Stanhope was miſtaken in imagining, that the canons to which he alluded had not at this moment the force of a law. Doctor Halifax, biſhop of Saint Aſaph, enforced this aſſertion, and ſaid that the clergy were bound by theſe canons, though the laity were exempted. He reminded the houſe of an inſtitution among the Locrians, which obliged every man that propoſed the repeal of an exiſting law, to come into the aſſembly with a rope about his neck.

Doctor Horſley, biſhop of Saint David's, acknowledged, that at this day there were laws exiſting, that did no credit to the ſpirit of the times in which they were made; and that the conſideration that ſuch laws were not likely to be enforced, formed no reaſon why they ſhould be ſuffered to remain. He could not however but object to the preſent bill, which was calculated rudely to tear away the foundations of the church of England, and through her means to deſtroy the very being of the Engliſh conſtitution. He would not defend the penalty of twenty pounds per month upon thoſe who did not regularly attend divine worſhip; but the act of queen Elizabeth,

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impoſing a fine of one ſhilling for every omiſſion, was a ſalutary law, and ſuch as ought to be preſerved. The rights of private judgment in matters of religion were indeed unalienable, but thoſe rights were not of unlimited extent. The magiſtrate for inſtance had a right to puniſh atheiſm as a crime againſt the welfare of ſociety, and by the ſame rule to puniſh a contempt for the revelation of God in the Chriſtian religion. There was always danger in diſturbing ancient laws, for the exiſtence of which at a diſtant period no good reaſon could be given. Their wiſdom, though not obvious at the period of their repeal, was generally proved by the miſchief that enſued upon their annihilation. Lord Stormont ſpoke upon the ſame ſide of the queſtion, and paid ſome high compliments to the bench of biſhops, declaring that they had that day done themſelves infinite credit, and uſed arguments that would render their characters ſacred in the public opinion. The bill of lord Stanhope was rejected.

The ſame nobleman, undiſcouraged by his miſcarriage, immediately produced another bill to prevent vexatious proceedings upon the ſubject of tithes. In explaining the object of his propoſal he remarked, that tithes might upon the preſent ſyſtem be ſued for in the temporal courts, but that there was an act of king Henry the Eighth, which had been made uſe of by ſome clergymen to gratify their avarice or their malignity, and which authoriſed another mode of proceeding. In the ſpiritual courts a man might be impriſoned for the amount of four-pence; and ſix quakers, who by their religious principles were reſtrained from the voluntary payment of tithes, had lately been perſecuted under this act in the city of Coventry. The amount of what was due from them taken together was two ſhillings; but, in conſequence of the ſuit that had been inſtituted againſt them, they were become debtors to the amount of three hundred pounds. Another quaker, a man of ſome property, was at that moment in priſon in the common jail at Worceſter, for the ſum of five ſhillings; and, if ſome remedy were not provided, muſt remain there for life. Lord Stanhope therefore propoſed, that no ſuit ſhould hereafter be inſtituted in any eccleſiaſtical court for the recovery of tithes. Lord Kenyon oppoſed the bill. He ſaid, that, if perſons were ſo obſtinate as to refuſe the payment of legal dues, he could not conſider their impriſonment as an oppreſſion. He ſtated, that the bill was very improperly drawn, that it would deprive the inferior clergy of the poſſibility of recovering the ſmall tithes which were their chief ſupport, and that the remainder of the ſeſſion would be too ſhort to diſcuſs an undertaking of ſo great magnitude. The bill was ſupported by the duke of Norfolk, but upon the ſecond reading was rejected by the houſe.

Another bill, upon a ſubject ſomewhat analogous to theſe, was introduced by Mr. Beaufoy, for the purpoſe of inſtituting a feſtival for the commemoration of the revolution. The bill had originated in the circumſtance of the preceding year being the laſt in completing a century from that glorious and important event. The period had been celebrated in many parts of the kingdom with great zeal and ſolemnity, and a project had been formed, at the head of which were Mr. Fox and Mr. Sheridan, for the purpoſe of erecting

erecting a column in memory of this illuſtrious æra, which was to be ſeated upon the plains of Runnamede, the ſcene where the barons of old had extorted from king John the confirmation of Magna Charta. Another ſociety had at the ſame time formed the idea of rendering the anniverſary a perpetual religious feſtival, and they intended that the reading of the bill of rights, as an abſtract of the privileges of the people, ſhould form a part of the public ſolemnity of the day. The bill was ſupported by Mr. Sheridan, but met with more oppoſition than might have been expected, and its introducer therefore thought proper to change the idea of making it a ſeparate feſtival, into that of introducing a ſuitable religious ſervice on the Sunday preceding the anniverſary. The bill paſſed the houſe of commons, but was rejected upon the firſt reading in the houſe of lords upon the motion of lord Thurlow, and doctor Warren biſhop of Bangor, who among other reaſons obſerved that the propoſed reading of the ſtatute called the bill of rights was upon many accounts highly improper.

CHAP. VIII.

Trial of Mr. Haſtings. Mr. Burke cenſured by the Houſe of Commons. India Budget. Extenſion of the Capital of the Eaſt India Company.

THE trial of Mr. Haſtings had been proſecuted without being brought to a concluſion through the courſe of the preceding ſeſſion. The evidence upon two of the charges upon the part of the proſecution had then been concluded, and, the buſineſs being now reſumed, a third charge, reſpecting the preſents that had been received by Mr. Haſtings during his government of Bengal, was opened by Mr. Burke. In the courſe of his ſpeech upon this occaſion, Mr. Burke alluded to the trial and execution of Nundcomar, and aſſerted that Mr. Haſtings had "murdered that man by the hands of ſir Elijah Impey." The tranſaction reſpecting Nundcomar made no ſpecific part of the charges which had been preferred by the houſe of commons, and the queſtion, ſo far as ſir Elijah Impey was implicated in it, had been examined and rejected during the preceding ſeſſion by the houſe of commons. Mr. Haſtings therefore thought proper to preſent a petition to the houſe, in which he intreated them, either to cauſe the additional allegations that were urged againſt him to be brought forward and proſecuted in ſpecific articles, or to afford him ſuch other redreſs as they might judge ſuitable and proper. In the courſe of his petition he mentioned certain allegations, that had been brought againſt him in the preceding year, reſpecting a plot for aſſaſſinating the Great Mogul, the putting to death the ſon of

of Jaffier Ali Khan, nabob of Bengal, and various acts of oppreſſion and ſavage cruelty committed by a man named Deby Sing, all of which he aſſerted to be unfounded and untrue. Major Scott, who preſented the petition, ſpoke particularly to the various topics it contained, and affirmed, that Mr. Burke had in theſe inſtances been guilty of cool, deliberate, ſyſtematic and intentional miſrepreſentation. He ſaid, that the affair of the plot againſt the Great Mogul had been completely inveſtigated in the caſe of lord Clive ſixteen years before, that in the crimes of Deby Sing, which had made ſo much noiſe, not only in England but in every part of Europe, Mr. Haſtings could not under any poſſible conſtruction be implicated, and that the moſt horrid of the cruelties deſcribed by Mr. Burke had never been committed.

The committee of managers were unanimous in exclaiming againſt the extraordinary conduct of Mr. Haſtings, in appealing to that houſe who were his proſecutors, rather than claiming the protection of the court by which he was tried, as was the practice in all ſimilar inſtances. Mr. Fox ſpoke with much emphaſis of the painful ſituation of the committee. This was the firſt inſtance in hiſtory of an impeachment ordered by the houſe of commons, of which the law officers of the crown were not ſome of the principal directors. They had to contend with a moſt powerful criminal, a man, who for fourteen years poſſeſſed all the patronage of India, and who had been enabled to confer ſo many obligations, that his connections at home were almoſt irreſiſtible. The houſe of commons, it was well known, might, ſo far as related to this buſineſs, be diſtributed into three claſſes, thoſe who had originally urged the proſecution, thoſe who were openly hoſtile to it, and thoſe who having at length been perſuaded that it was a meaſure that ought to be adopted, yet perpetually lent their weight to the enemies of the proſecution, and made their ſcale preponderate. Mr. Fox demanded with much earneſtneſs, that, if the majority of the houſe of commons had altered their opinions and really conceived the proſecution ought to be given up, they would declare ſo in a direct and explicit manner, and not quaſh the proceeding by meaſures, that muſt really ſubvert the cauſe of juſtice, while they ſeemed to have a different view. If they conceived the preſent managers unfit for the diſcharge of the important truſt that was repoſed in them, let them proceed to their diſmiſſion; but let them not cenſure and reſtrain them, while they were purſuing the great ends of juſtice, in the manner which to their judgment appeared moſt effectual. The motive for the coarſe language which had been employed by major Scott was obvious. He was deſirous to provoke and inſult the conductor of the proſecution, and thus change a great public queſtion into a perſonal quarrel. But he truſted his drift was underſtood, and that the mind of Mr. Burke was too firm, to be diverted by any ſuch poor and inſidious arts, into a private conteſt with the agent of Mr. Haſtings. The conduct of Mr. Haſtings himſelf was ſimilar to that which he had purſued upon former occaſions. In the inſtance of Nundcomar and many others, when he had found himſelf ſtrongly preſſed by the evidence of his guilt, he immediately changed

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characters, and from a defendant became an accuſer. It was new in the hiſtory of our juriſprudence for a perſon accuſed to claim the protection of his proſecutor; but the mode of proceeding of that day was not unexampled in the politics of Bengal.

The petition of Mr. Haſtings was ſupported by Mr. Pitt, who conceived indeed that the other allegations, to which it alluded, and which had occurred in the courſe of the preceding ſeſſion, could not poſſibly be taken into the conſideration of the houſe. But in the queſtion that related to Nundcomar Mr. Haſtings had urged his complaint, on the very day ſubſequent to that upon which the obnoxious expreſſion had been delivered. It therefore became the character and juſtice of that houſe to grant him in this inſtance the redreſs he demanded. Mr. Fox, he ſaid, had aſſerted in unqualified terms, that men employed by others as managers or agents never could be reſtricted in any point, but that, if they went beyond the powers committed to them, they ought to be diſmiſſed; and that there was no caſe conceivable in which a contrary proceeding might be right, let the nature of the buſineſs or the progreſs already made in it be what it would, and let the inconvenience and difficulty of chooſing new managers be ever ſo great. Mr. Pitt would venture to maintain the contrary opinion. There were many caſes imaginable, in which perſons might ſomewhat exceed their powers, and thus render reſtriction or obſervation upon their conduct peculiarly proper, at the ſame time that it might be wholly improper entirely to diſcharge them. In the preſent inſtance, the murder of Nundcomar was no part of the crime of peculation, and every rule of evidence was againſt its being alledged. It had been charged in order to diſcredit the character of the accuſed; but it was a rule in the courts of law that no fact could be given in evidence to diſcredit even a witneſs. If then the murder of Nundcomar was not admiſſible as evidence, it could only be urged as matter of aggravation; but it was impoſſible to allow this. The common ſenſe of the houſe and of all mankind would not permit the crime of murder to be urged to aggravate a crime of peculation. Mr. Fox had inſinuated that thoſe who ſhould vote in favour of the petition were to be regarded as enemies of the proſecution. Upon this head Mr. Pitt would make no profeſſions, but would leave the ſincerity and faithfulneſs of his character to be vindicated by the conduct he ſhould purſue. Colonel Phipps and Mr. Jekyl inforced the arguments of Mr. Pitt. It was not, they ſaid, to be imagined, that a man, who was upon his trial for murder, could juſtly be accuſed in the courſe of that trial of felonies and other enormities. But, if this were inadmiſſible, what muſt be ſaid to the flagrant abſurdity and iniquity of loading a man, who was upon his trial for miſdemeanours only, with the atrocious imputation of murder?

Mr. Fox repelled this argument. He put the caſe of a man indited for murder, in which it afterwards appeared, that to accompliſh the murder, he had broken into the houſe of the victim. Was it to be ſuppoſed that the counſel for the proſecution was to be ſtopped when alledging this fact, and to be told, you are not to mention a ſyllable of the houſe-

breaking, becauſe that of itſelf is a crime. Mr. Fox quoted the caſe of the captain of a ſhip, againſt whom murder was charged in having thrown his cargo of ſlaves overboard, in order to prove that he had by ſiniſter means endeavoured to defraud the underwriters of the amount of the inſurance. The preſent caſe Mr. Fox ſaid was exactly correſpondent to theſe. It was impoſſible to relate the corrupt tranſactions of Mr. Haſtings without relating the crimes that had accompanied them, or to relate the crimes without mentioning the names of the perſons by whom they had been committed. In the impeachment of ſir Elijah Impey during the laſt ſeſſion, the member who had brought the charge, and he who had ſupported it, had accuſed the chief juſtice of Bengal of a legal murder, and yet neither of them had been cenſured by the houſe: and why? Becauſe neither of them had talked of a murder in the technical ſenſe of the word; but as a miſdemeanour. Mr. Fox ſaid, that the complaint of Mr. Haſtings in the preſent inſtance did not apply to Mr. Burke only, but to every one of the managers. They all of them approved of the uſe Mr. Burke had made of the affair of Nundcomar. They intended to adduce evidence under this head, in order to ſhow that the attempts to diſcredit the teſtimony of Nundcomar were unworthy of regard; and it was ſurely improper for the houſe of commons to go out of their way, and prejudice the intended evidence before it was produced. If Mr. Fox were aſked his private opinion upon the ſubject, he ſhould anſwer that he thought it a murder; and what he would ſay in his private capacity, he would ſay in that houſe or in Weſtminſter-hall.

Mr. Burke obſerved, that, if upon any occaſion he had thought it neceſſary to entreat the candour of the houſe, ſuch a thought was at preſent the fartheſt from his mind. Indulgence was only to be beſtowed where there was error, and he was conſcious that he had committed none. The cenſure of the houſe of commons, great and awful as it might in other caſes be deemed, could in this inſtance produce no deep effect on his mind. He ſtood acquitted to his own judgment and conſcience, and he could not ſuffer himſelf to appeal from them to any other tribunal. If, after the explanation that had been given, the houſe ſhould chooſe to continue him in his truſt as a manager, he would perſiſt in the diſcharge of it to the beſt of his ability; but if on the other hand they thought it right to cenſure and remove him, he would receive it as a perſonal favour to himſelf, ſince it would remove him from an arduous undertaking, far above his natural ſtrength, and which nothing but his conſciouſneſs of its magnitude could have enabled him to ſuſtain.

The petition having been received, a motion was made that one of the ſhort-hand writers appointed by the houſe of commons ſhould be examined at the bar reſpecting the words complained of in the petition. The queſtion of adjournment was then moved, and the houſe having divided the numbers appeared, ayes 97, noes 157. It was urged by Mr. Fox and Mr. Sheridan, that, if members thought proper to pay any attention to the petition, they were bound to examine all its allegations; and, an amendment having been moved by Mr. Addington to confine the examination

mination to the caſe of Nundcomar, it was received upon a diviſion. The leaders of oppoſition vehemently complained of the intention to examine the ſhort-hand writer as a flagrant violation of the privileges of parliament, it not being uſual to cenſure the words of any member of that houſe, unleſs they were taken down in writing at the time by another member.

At length a reſolution was moved by the marquis of Graham, one of the lords of the treaſury, that no direction or authority had been given by the houſe of commons for the purpoſe of making any allegation againſt Mr. Haſtings reſpecting the death of Nundcomar. Mr. Fox readily acquieſced in this motion, as it contained no expreſſion that implied that the allegation ought not to have been made. It was therefore amended by the marquis of Graham and Mr. Pitt; and it was propoſed to add, that the words of Mr. Burke complained of in the petition ought not to have been ſpoken. Mr. Fox moved a farther amendment, the object of which was to ſtate, that the death of Nundcomar had been ſpecifically mentioned as an aggravation, in the charges that had formed the baſis of the whole proceeding, and that the declaration of Mr. Burke was conſidered by the managers of the proſecution as eſſential to the ſupport of the cauſe. Mr. Fox ſaid that the charges originally exhibited had contained the evidence together with the accuſations, but that it had been thought proper to ſeparate them and narrate the facts only in the articles that had been preſented at the bar of the houſe of lords. He declared, that he thought the proceedings of the laſt few days infinitely diſgraceful to the houſe, and dangerous to every future impeachment. The privileges of parliament were eſſentially evaded in theſe tranſactions, and he ſhould think it his duty, if at any future period he was ſupported by a majority of that houſe, to move that every thing that related to this buſineſs ſhould be expunged from the journals. The amendment of Mr. Fox was rejected; and, the reſolution being carried, it was moved by Mr. Bouverie, that the thanks of the houſe ſhould be given to Mr. Burke and the reſt of the managers, for their exertions and aſſiduity in the proſecution, and that they ſhould be deſired to perſevere. The previous queſtion was moved upon this propoſition by ſir Richard Arden.

A farther tranſaction relative to the trial of Mr. Haſtings was the motion of Mr. Marſham on the ſixteenth of June, for a proſecution againſt the printer of the newſpaper, entitled the World, for a libel upon the houſe of commons, in having ſtated, that "the trial was to be put off to another ſeſſion, unleſs the houſe of lords had ſpirit enough to put an end to ſo ſhameful a buſineſs."

Mr. Dundas entered into his annual detail of the revenues of India on the firſt of July. He ſpoke of them with conſiderable moderation, and allowed, that the ſituation of Bombay, the debt at home and certain other particulars had been ſtated at too high a rate in the eſtimate of the preceding year. He however calculated the net revenue of our poſſeſſions in India, after every article of expenditure in that country was deducted, at 1,820,000l; and from thence inferred the moſt favourable proſpect of our future ſituation

in that country. Mr. Francis obſerved, that it was in vain to ſtate upon paper a great ſurplus of revenue in that country, which could not be ſhown either to have been applied to the diſcharge of the debt, or to the purpoſe of the inveſtment; and he mentioned ſeveral particulars in which he conceived Mr. Dundas to have placed the ſubject in too favourable a light. Major Scott remarked, that Mr. Francis had now, for the firſt time that an India budget had been opened, omitted to ſay one word as to the ſtate of the government of that country, or to reprobate, as he had been accuſtomed to do, the ſyſtem under which it was adminiſtered. That ſyſtem he affirmed to be the ſame, which had been introduced by Mr. Haſtings, adopted by lord Cornwallis and ſanctioned by the king's miniſters. Thus the houſe of commons appeared, as he obſerved, to be alternately engaged in condemning and reprobating the ſyſtem when they acted in one capacity, and beſtowing upon it the higheſt applauſe when they acted in another.

On the firſt of July a petition was preſented to the houſe of commons on the part of the Eaſt-India company, deſiring to be permitted to increaſe their capital by the ſum of one million, the whole to be ſubſcribed by the preſent proprietors of Eaſt India ſtock. They apologized for the late period at which the petition was preſented, by obſerving, that they had waited for the arrival of certain ſhips, in order to be enabled to ſtate more preciſely the preſent ſituation of their finances, and to demonſtrate to the houſe the propriety and juſtice of granting their demand. Mr. Dundas entered into a calculation of their revenues, from which he inferred that they laboured under a preſent deficiency to the amount of 2,930,000 l. Their charter would expire in the year 1791; but, upon giving proper notice to parliament, they were entitled to an extenſion of three years; and he undertook to prove that in the year 1794 they would be able to liquidate the whole of their preſent embarraſſments. They owed indeed, excluſively of the articles that entered into his calculation, ſix millions of debt in India; but, into whatever hands the territories fell at the expiration of the charter, there could be no objection on the part of the future proprietor to enter with the encumbrance of this debt into the poſſeſſion of a territory, whoſe net revenue was 1,500,000 l. per annum. Mr. Dundas truſted no man would infer from what he now ſaid, that there was any probability the company's charter would not be renewed. It might be depended upon, that their intereſts and the intereſts of the public were the ſame, and that they muſt riſe or fall, exiſt or periſh together. Such are the expreſſions that we find put into his mouth in the materials from which our narrative is drawn; but on a future day he excepted to this repreſentation of his language, and ſaid that he had meant to ſpeak only of their commerce. The queſtion of the renewal of their charter as a territorial company he had left untouched, and he deſired to be underſtood as neither pledging himſelf nor the executive government, either that the charter of the company would or that it would not be renewed.

The bill that was brought in upon the petition experienced a very ſlight degree of oppoſition either in the houſe of commons or the houſe of lords.

lords. In the ſtage of the buſineſs immediately ſubſequent to the ſecond reading in the latter, lord Thurlow however expreſſed himſelf upon the ſubject with great apparent candour and impartiality. He lamented that meaſures of ſo great magnitude ſhould be introduced at ſo late a period of the year, perſuaded as he was that it was not more a matter of inconvenience to individual members of parliament when they were thus introduced than to miniſters themſelves, who, he was ſatisfied, could not ſo well underſtand their bearings, or attend to them in the manner or with the degree of caution which their importance required. As far as he was acquainted with the project under conſideration, taking it merely in a problematical and ſpeculative point of view, he was inclined to think well of it; but there were certain articles in the detail of accounts that had been laid upon their table, reſpecting which he entertained doubts and ſuſpicion. The houſe he conceived was juſtifiable in ſuffering the meaſure to be put in practice, but they could not take upon themſelves to be reſponſible for the event. The language which they held out to the ſubſcribers might be thus explained: "We have called for the accounts of the company, and done all in our power to aſcertain whether there were danger in the ſpeculation. The grounds upon which we proceeded are before you: you muſt underſtand every article of the accounts much better than we do; judge for yourſelves, and act as you think proper." Lord Thurlow ſtrongly excepted to a clauſe in the bill, authoriſing guardians to veſt the property of minors in the additional ſtock; and he alluded to a clauſe of a ſimilar nature, which had eſcaped in the bill of the preſent ſeſſion, for raiſing the ſum of a million for the uſe of government by the mode of life annuity. He ſaid, that it was an invariable maxim in the courts of law, that no ſuch diſcretion ſhould be permitted in guardians. An adult, if he purchaſed ſtock of any ſort, could ſell out when he conceived the adventure to have become dangerous; but the property of an infant was irremoveable. Lord Thurlow had a ſtill ſtronger objection to the mode of annuity, which was the infallible ſource of ſelfiſhneſs and indolence, and diſcouraged trade, adventure, population and marriage. The clauſe relating to minors was at the inſtigation of lord Thurlow taken out of the bill.

CHAP. IX.

Diſcuſſion of the Slave Trade. Queſtion deferred. Mr. Addington Speaker. Budget. Loan. Taxes. Exciſe on Tobacco. Motion on the Finances. Demand of Corn from the French refuſed. Prorogation.

THE ſubject of the ſlave trade, which had been ſuggeſted to the conſideration of parliament in the preceding ſeſſion, was not regularly reſumed till the twelfth of May. In the interval various petitions had been preſented in the laſt and preſent ſeſſion from perſons principally intereſted, the object of which was to demand that ſo fatal a meaſure as they conceived to be that of the abolition of the African trade might not be adopted. The places in which the petitions had originated, were London, Liverpool, Briſtol, Lancaſter and Glaſgow. In the mean time the report of the committee of privy council, of which Mr. Pitt had given notice in the preceding ſeſſion, was laid upon the table of the houſe of commons on the twenty-fifth of April, and the regular diſcuſſion of the buſineſs was at length opened by Mr. Wilberforce in a ſpeech, which has been highly commended for the energy of its ſtructure and the perſuaſiveneſs of its eloquence.

He began with obſerving, that he did not mean to appeal to the paſſions of the houſe, but to their cool and impartial reaſon. He did not mean to accuſe any one, but to take ſhame to himſelf, in common indeed with the whole parliament of Great Britain, for having ſuffered ſo odious a trade to be carried on under their authority. He deprecated every kind of reflection againſt the various deſcription of perſons who were moſt immediately involved in this wretched tranſaction. It was neceſſary for him to ſtate in the outſet, that he did not conceive the witneſſes who were examined, and particularly intereſted witneſſes, to be judges of the argument. In the matters of fact that were related by them he admitted their competency, but confident aſſertions, not of facts, but of ſuppoſed conſequences of facts, went for nothing in his eſtimation. Mr. Wilberforce divided his ſubject into three parts, the nature of the trade as it affected Africa itſelf, the appearance it aſſumed in the tranſportation of the ſlaves, and the conſiderations that were ſuggeſted by their actual ſtate in the Weſt Indies. With reſpect to the firſt it was found by experience to be juſt ſuch, as every man who uſed his reaſon would infallibly have concluded it to be. What muſt be the natural conſequence of a ſlave trade with Africa, with a country vaſt in its extent, not utterly barbarous, but civilized in a very ſmall degree? Was it not plain, that ſhe muſt ſuffer from it; that her ſavage manners muſt be rendered ſtill more ferocious, and that a ſlave trade carried on round her coaſts muſt extend

extend violence and desolation to her very centre? Such were precisely the circumstances proved by the evidence before the privy council, particularly by those who had been most conversant with the subject, Mr. Wadstrom, captain Hill and doctor Sparrman. From them it appeared, that the kings of Africa were never induced to engage in war by public principles, by national glory, and least of all by the love of their people. They had conversed with these princes, and had learned from their own mouths, that to procure slaves was the object of their hostilities. Indeed there was scarcely a single person examined before the privy council, who did not prove that the slave trade was the source of the tragedies continually acted upon that extensive continent. Some had endeavoured to palliate this circumstance; but there was not one that did not more or less admit it to be true. By one it was called the concurrent cause, by the majority it was acknowledged to be the principal motive of the African wars.

Mr. Wilberforce proceeded to describe the mode in which the slaves were transported from Africa to the West Indies. This he confessed was the most wretched part of the whole subject. So much misery condensed in so little room was more than the human imagination had ever before conceived. He would not accuse the Liverpool traders; he verily believed, that, if the wretchedness of any one of the many hundred negroes stowed in each ship could be brought before the view and remain in the sight of the African merchant, there was not one among them whose heart would be strong enough to bear it. He called upon his hearers to imagine six or seven hundred of these victims chained two and two, surrounded with every object that was nauseous and disgusting, diseased and struggling with all the varieties of wretchedness. How could they bear to think of such a scene as this? Meanwhile he would beg leave to quote the evidence of Mr. Norris, delivered in a manner that fully demonstrated that interest could draw a film over the eyes so thick, that total blindness could do no more. "Their apartments," said this evidence, "are fitted up as much for their advantage as circumstances will admit. They have several meals a day, some of their own country provisions, with the best sauces of African cookery, and by way of variety another meal of pulse, &c. according to European taste. After breakfast they have water to wash themselves, while their apartments are perfumed with frankincense and lime-juice. Before dinner they are amused after the manner of their country; the song and the dance are promoted, and games of chance are furnished. The men play and sing while the women and girls make fanciful ornaments with beads, with which they are plentifully supplied." Such was the sort of strain in which the Liverpool delegates gave their evidence before the privy council. What would the house think, when by the concurring testimony of other witnesses the true history was laid open? The slaves, who were sometimes described as rejoicing in their captivity, were so wrung with misery at leaving their country, that it was the constant practice to set sail in the night, lest they should be sensible of their departure. Their accommodations it seemed were convenient. The right ancle of one indeed was connected with

with the left ancle of another by a small iron fetter, and, if they were turbulent, by another on the wrists. The pulse which Mr. Norris mentioned were horse beans, and the legislature of Jamaica had stated the scantiness both of water and provision as a subject that called for the interference of parliament. Mr. Norris talked of frankincense and lime-juice, while the surgeons described the slaves as so closely stowed, that there was not room to tread among them, and while it was proved in evidence by sir George Yonge, that, even in a ship that wanted two hundred of her complement, the stench was intolerable. The song and the dance, said Mr. Norris, are promoted. It would have been more fair perhaps, if he had explained the word promoted. The truth was that for the sake of exercise these miserable wretches, loaded with chains and oppressed with disease, were forced to dance by the terror of the lash, and sometimes by the actual use of it. "I," said one of the evidences, "was employed to dance the men, while another person danced the women." Such was the meaning of the word promoted; and it might also be observed with respect to food, that instruments was sometimes carried out in order to force them to eat, which was the same sort of proof how much they enjoyed themselves in this instance also. With respect to their singing, it consisted of songs of lamentation on their departure, which while they sung they were always in tears, so that one of the captains, more humane probably than the rest, threatened a woman with a flogging, because the mournfulness of her song was too painful for his feelings. That he might not trust however too much to any sort of description, Mr. Wilberforce called the attention of the house to one species of evidence which was infallible. Death was a witness that could not deceive them, and the proportion of deaths would not only confirm, but, if possible, even aggravate our suspicion of the misery of the transit. It would be found upon an average of all the ships upon which evidence had been given, that, exclusively of such as perished before they sailed, not less than twelve and a half per cent. died in the passage. Beside these the Jamaica report stated that four and a half per cent. expired upon shore before the day of sale, which was only a week or two from the time of their landing; one third more died in the seasoning, and this in a climate exactly similar to their own, and where, as some of the witnesses pretended, they were healthy and happy. The diseases however that they contracted on ship-board, the astringents and washes that were employed to hide their wounds, and make them up for sale, were a principal cause of this mortality. The negroes, it should be remembered, were not purchased at first except in perfect health, and the sum of the different casualties taken together produced a mortality of above fifty per cent.

Mr. Wilberforce added, that, as soon as he had advanced thus far in his investigation, he felt the wickedness of the slave trade to be so enormous, so dreadful and so irremediable, that he could stop at no alternative short of its abolition. A trade founded in iniquity, and carried on with such circumstances of horror, must be abolished, let the policy be what it might, and he had

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from this time determined, whatever were the conſequences, that he would never reſt till he had effected that abolition. His mind had indeed been haraſſed with the objections of the Weſt Indian planters, who had aſſerted that the ruin of their property muſt be the conſequence of this regulation. He could not however help diſtruſting their arguments. He could not believe that the Almighty Being, who forbad the practice of rapine and bloodſhed, had made rapine and bloodſhed neceſſary to any part of his univerſe. He felt a confidence in this perſuaſion, and took the reſolution to act upon it. Light indeed ſoon broke in upon him; the ſuſpicion of his mind was every day confirmed by increaſing information, and the evidence he had now to offer upon this point was deciſive and complete. The principle upon which he founded the neceſſity of the abolition was not policy, but juſtice; but, though juſtice were the principle of the meaſure, yet he truſted he ſhould diſtinctly prove it to be reconcileable with our trueſt political intereſt.

In the firſt place he aſſerted that the number of negroes in the Weſt Indies might be kept up without the introduction of recruits from Africa; and to prove this he enumerated the various ſources of the preſent mortality. The firſt was the diſproportion of the ſexes, an evil, which, when the ſlave trade was aboliſhed, muſt in the courſe of nature cure itſelf. The ſecond was the diſorders contracted in the tranſportation, and the conſequences of the waſhes and mercurial ointments by which they were made up for ſale. A third was exceſſive labour joined with improper food; and a fourth the extreme diſſoluteneſs of their manners. Theſe would both of them be counteracted by the impoſſibility of procuring farther ſupplies. It was the intereſt, they were told, of the maſters to treat their ſlaves with kindneſs and humanity; but it was immediate and preſent, not future and diſtant intereſt that was the great ſpring of action in the affairs of mankind. Why did we make laws to puniſh men? It was their intereſt to be upright and virtuous. But there was a preſent impulſe continually breaking in upon their better judgment, an impulſe, which was known to be contrary to their permanent advantage. It was ridiculous to ſay that men would be bound by their intereſt, when preſent gain or ardent paſſion urged them. It might as well be aſſerted, that a ſtone could not be thrown into the air, or a body move from place to place, becauſe the principle of gravitation bound them to the ſurface of the earth. If a planter in the Weſt Indies found himſelf reduced in his profits, he did not uſually diſpoſe of any part of his ſlaves, and his own gratifications were never given up, ſo long as there was a poſſibility of any retrenchment in the allowance of his negroes. Mr. Wilberforce entered into a calculation in order to prove that in many of the iſlands, and particularly in Jamaica, there was an increaſe of population among the ſlaves actually begun, and he deduced from the whole that the births in that iſland at this moment exceeded the deaths by one thouſand or eleven hundred per annum. Allowing however the number of negroes to decreaſe, there were other obvious ſources that would inſure the welfare of the Weſt Indian iſlands; the waſte of labour which at preſent

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prevailed; the introduction of the plough and other machinery; the diviſion of work, which in free and civilized countries was the grand ſource of wealth; and the reduction of the number of domeſtic ſervants, of whom not leſs than from twenty to forty were kept in ordinary families. But, granting that all theſe ſuppoſitions were unfounded, that every one of theſe ſuccedanea ſhould fail; the planters would ſtill be ſecured and out of all queſtion indemnify themſelves, as was the caſe in every tranſaction of commerce, by the increaſed price of their produce in the Engliſh market. The Weſt Indians therefore, who contended againſt the abolition, were nonſuited in every part of the argument. Did they ſay that freſh importation was neceſſary? He had ſhown that the number of ſlaves might be kept up by procreation. Was this denied? He aſſerted that the plough, horſes, machinery, domeſtic ſlaves and all the other inevitable improvements would ſupply the deficiency. Was it perſiſted in that the deficiency could be no way ſupplied, and that the quantity of produce would diminiſh? He then reverted to the unanſwerable argument, that the increaſe of price would make up their loſs, and ſecure them againſt every poſſible miſcarriage.

Mr. Wilberforce proceeded to anſwer incidental objections. In the firſt place he aſſerted, that the African trade, inſtead of being the nurſery of our ſailors, had been found to be their grave. A compariſon had with great induſtry been formed between the muſter-rolls of the ſlave ſhips and thoſe of the other branches of our commerce; and it had been found, that more ſailors had died in one year in the ſlave trade, than in two years in all our other trades put together. Three thouſand one hundred and ſeventy ſeamen had ſailed from Liverpool in 1787, and of theſe only fourteen hundred and twenty-eight had returned. Information upon the ſubject had lately been received from the governor of Barbadoes, who ſtated in the courſe of his narrative, that the "African traders at home were obliged to ſend out their ſhips very ſtrongly manned, as well from the unhealthineſs of the climate, as the neceſſity of guarding the ſlaves; and, as they ſoon felt the burthen of the conſequent expence, the maſters quarrelled immediately upon their arrival in the iſlands with their ſeamen upon the moſt frivolous pretences, and turned them on ſhore, while many of theſe valuable ſubjects, ſometimes from ſickneſs, and ſometimes from the neceſſity of entering into foreign employment for ſubſiſtence, were totally loſt to their country." A farther objection that had been urged was, that if we abandoned the ſlave trade, it would only be taken up by the French; we ſhould become the ſufferers, and the evil would remain in its utmoſt extent. This was indeed a very weak and ſophiſtical argument; and, if it would defend the ſlave trade, might equally be urged in favour of robbery, murder and every ſpecies of wickedneſs, which, if we did not practice, others would probably commit. The objection however he believed had no foundation in fact. Mr. Necker, the preſent miniſter of France, was a man of ability and religion, and in his work upon the adminiſtration of the finances had actually recorded his abhorrence of the ſlave trade; and the king of France, having

having lately been requeſted to diſſolve a ſociety formed for the expreſs purpoſe of the abolition, had anſwered that he could not comply with what was deſired, and that he on the contrary rejoiced in the exiſtence of ſuch a ſociety.

Mr. Wilberforce proceeded in his arguments to ſhew, that no meaſure could in the preſent caſe be effectual, ſhort of the entire abolition. The Jamaica report had recommended that no perſon ſhould be kidnapped, or permitted to be made ſlaves contrary to the cuſtoms of Africa. Might they not be reduced to this ſtate unjuſtly, and yet by no means contrary to the cuſtoms of Africa? Beſide how could we diſtinguiſh between the ſlaves juſtly and unjuſtly reduced to that condition? Could we diſcover them by their phyſiognomy? If we could, was it believed, that the Britiſh captains would by any regulations in this country be prevailed upon to refuſe all thoſe, that had not been fairly, honeſtly and uprightly enſlaved? Thoſe who were offered to us for ſale, were brought, ſome of them, three or four thouſand miles, and exchanged like cattle from one hand to another, till they reached the coaſt. What compenſation then could be made to the rejected ſlaves for their ſufferings? The argument was equally valid as to their tranſportation. The profit of the merchant depended upon the number that could be crowded together, and the ſhortneſs of the allowance. As to their ultimate ſituation it would alſo remain. Slavery was the ſource of all ſorts of degradation, and the condition of ſlavery could not even be meliorated, without putting an end to the hope of farther reinforcements. In fine Mr. Wilberforce called upon his hearers to make all the amends in their power for the miſchief they had done to the continent of Africa. He called upon them to recollect what Europe had been three centuries ago. In the reign of king Henry the Seventh the inhabitants of Briſtol had actually ſold their children as an article of merchandiſe. The people of Ireland had done the ſame. Let then the ſame opportunity of civilization be extended to Africa, which had done ſo much for our own iſlands. It might hitherto have been alledged in our excuſe, that we were not acquainted with the enormity of the wickedneſs we ſuffered; but we could no longer plead ignorance; it was directly brought before our eyes, and that houſe muſt decide, and muſt juſtify to the world and their conſciences the facts and principles upon which their deciſion was formed.

Mr. Wilberforce moved twelve propoſitions, upon which however he obſerved that he did not mean to urge them to an immediate vote. They ſtated the number of ſlaves annually carried from Africa, imported into the Britiſh Weſt Indies, and entered in the cuſtom houſe accounts; the number in the firſt of theſe articles amounting to thirty-eight thouſand. They entered into the probable demerits of the perſons ſold to ſlavery, the conſequences produced upon the inhabitants of Africa, and the valuable and important commerce to that country which might be ſubſtituted in the room of the ſlave trade. They ſtated the injury ſuſtained by the Britiſh ſeamen, and the fatal circumſtances that attended the tranſportation to the ſlaves. They detailed the cauſes of the mortality of the negroes, and enumerated the different

different items of calculation reſpecting the increaſe of population in Jamaica and Barbadoes; and they concluded with declaring, that it appeared that no conſiderable or permanent inconvenience would reſult from diſcontinuing the farther importation.

The propoſitions of Mr. Wilberforce were oppoſed by Mr. Sawbridge and Mr. Newnham on the part of the city of London, the latter of whom ſtated it as his perſuaſion, that, if the meaſure were carried into execution, it would render the metropolis one ſcene of bankruptcy and ruin. Mr. Dempſter obſerved, that the firſt propoſition he had expected Mr. Wilberforce to ſuggeſt was an engagement to make good out of the public purſe, all the loſſes which individuals would ſuſtain from the abolition of the ſlave trade. He was willing to be generous, but he did not like to be generous at the expence of other men's property. Lord Penrhyn aſſerted, that there were mortgages in the Weſt India iſlands to the amount of ſeventy millions ſterling, and that therefore the firſt conſequence of Mr. Wilberforce's project was to engage the country in equity and juſtice to the repayment of this ſum. He added, that the African merchants were to his knowledge willing to ſubmit to any regulation of the trade ſhort of its abolition. The propoſitions were farther oppoſed by lord Maitland, Mr. Marſham, Mr. Huſſey, Mr. Rolle, Mr. Drake, and Mr. alderman Watſon.

Mr. Burke, at the ſame time that he complimented in the higheſt terms the merits and eloquence of Mr. Wilberforce, expreſſed his ſorrow, that the queſtion could not be brought to a concluſion at once, without voting the propoſitions they had heard. He recommended it to parliament, to look beyond the preſent moment, and aſk themſelves, whether they had fortified their minds ſufficiently to bear the conſequences of the meaſure they were about to adopt. When they had abandoned the ſlave trade, the Spaniards or ſome other foreign power might poſſibly take it up, and clandeſtinely ſupply our Weſt India iſlands. Had they virtue enough in that caſe to abſtain from the envy natural to competitors in trade, ſteadily to purſue their purpoſe, and firmly adhere to their determination? If they ſhould repent of their virtue, and he had ſeen miſerable inſtances of ſuch repentance, all hope of future reformation would be loſt; they would go back to the trade they had abandoned with redoubled attachment, and adhere to it with the moſt ſhameleſs ardour. Mr. Burke remarked upon the aſſertion of Mr. Wilberforce, that the Weſt India planters would receive a compenſation adequate to the loſs they incurred by the abolition of the ſlave trade. He believed they would; but he could not conceive that that compenſation could be immediate. We were called upon to do an act of virtuous energy and heroiſm, and in this ſituation it was right we ſhould underſtand exactly what it was that was required of us; and that we muſt ſubmit to a temporary diſadvantage for the ſake of juſtice, humanity, truth and ultimate happineſs.

Mr. Pitt upon this occaſion, for the firſt time, explicitly delivered his ſentiments upon the ſubject, and particularly thanked Mr. Wilberforce for having choſen the only way in which it could be demonſtrated, that they were warranted, in every ground of fact and of reaſon, in adopting the

the meaſure that was now recommended to them. He was ſatisfied, that no argument, compatible with any idea of juſtice, could be aſſigned for the continuation of the ſlave trade; and, at the ſame time that he was willing to liſten with candour and impartiality to every thing that could be urged, he was ſure that the principles from which his opinion was deduced were totally unalterable. He had examined the ſubject with the anxiety that became him, and inveſtigated the different parts of it with all poſſible minuteneſs; and he averred, that it was ſophiſtry, obſcurity of ideas and vagueneſs of reaſoning, that alone could have hitherto prevented all mankind, thoſe immediately intereſted in the queſtion excepted, from agreeing in their opinion upon the ſubject. He differed from Mr. Burke with reſpect to the propriety of adopting theſe individual propoſitions. Let them be once entered upon the journals of the houſe, and it was almoſt impoſſible for them to fail in producing every beneficial conſequence that could be deſired. The mode in which the ſlave trade ſhould ultimately be aboliſhed was not now under diſcuſſion; but, whatever it were, Mr. Pitt truſted that the project now recommended to them would not prove the means of inviting foreign powers to ſupply our iſlands by a clandeſtine trade. When a debt was diſcovered to be founded upon the immutable principles of juſtice, it was impoſſible but the country had means to cauſe it to be paid. Should ſuch an illicit proceeding be attempted, the only language which it became us to adopt was, that Great Britain had reſources to enable her to protect her iſlands, and to prevent that traffic from being clandeſtinely carried on with them, which ſhe had thought fit, from a regard to her character and her honour, to abandon. It was highly becoming in Great Britain to take the lead of all other countries in a buſineſs of ſo great magnitude; and he could not but have confidence, that foreign nations would be inclined to ſhare the honour, and contented to follow us as their patterns in ſo excellent a work. If we were inclined to ſet about it in earneſt, other countries might be invited to concur with us, either by a negociation immediately to be commenced, or by the effect that the putting the propoſitions upon their journals would probably produce. Mr. Pitt added, that he felt it his duty to declare, that he could not in any ſort acquieſce in the idea that the legiſlature ſhould make a compenſation for the loſſes which might be ſuſtained by the people of Liverpool, or of any other part of the kingdom, in the execution of the preſent undertaking.

Mr. Fox obſerved, that he did not like, where he agreed as to the ſubſtance of the meaſure that was propoſed, to differ with reſpect to the form of it. He however conceived, that all the propoſitions of Mr. Wilberforce were not neceſſary to be voted previouſly to the ultimate deciſion, though ſome of them undoubtedly were. He conſidered them as of two claſſes; the one alledging the grounds upon which it was proper to proceed to the abolition, ſuch as that it was diſgraceful and inhuman, that it produced the worſt conſequences to the natives of Africa, and was attended with loſs of lives to our ſeamen; the other merely anſwering objections that might be ſtarted, and being ſuch as might poſſibly be attended with difference of opinion. He was however glad that the propoſitions were likely to be entered upon

upon the journals, ſince in that caſe, if from any misfortune the buſineſs ſhould be deferred, it could ſcarcely fail, ſooner or later, to be crowned with ſucceſs. Mr. Fox highly approved of what Mr. Pitt had ſaid reſpecting the language it became us to hold to foreign powers, though he could not admit the aſſertion of ſir William Young that a clandeſtine trade in ſlaves was worſe than a legal one. He thought that ſuch a trade, if it exiſted at all, ſhould be only clandeſtine. A trade in human fleſh was ſo ſcandalous, that it was to the laſt degree infamous to ſuffer it to be openly carried on by the authority of the government of any country. With regard to a regulation of the ſlave trade, his deteſtation of its exiſtence muſt naturally lead him to remark, that he knew of no ſuch thing as a regulation of robbery and reſtriction of murder. There was no medium; the legiſlature muſt either aboliſh the trade, or plead guilty to all the iniquity with which it was attended. Mr. Fox added, that, if there were any great and enlightened nation now exiſting in Europe, it was France, who was as likely as any country upon the face of the globe to catch a ſpark from the light of our fire, and to act upon the preſent ſubject with warmth and enthuſiaſm. France had often been improperly ſtimulated by her ambition; and he had no doubt but that, in the preſent inſtance, ſhe would readily follow its honourable dictates.

Mr. Henniker oppoſed the abolition, and in order to prove the unalterable depravity of the Africans, produced a curious letter from the emperor of the Dawhomayans, a people inhabiting three hundred miles inland, to king George the Firſt, which was found among the papers of James firſt duke of Chandos, and had remained in the family to the preſent time. In this letter the emperor of Dawhomay entered into a very curious detail of his own character and diſpoſition, the form of government of his country, and the manners and purſuits of his ſubjects. He ſtated, that, as he underſtood that king George was the greateſt of white kings, ſo he thought himſelf the greateſt of black ones, having many princes under him, who dared not come into his preſence without falling flat upon the ground, and rubbing their mouth nine times in the duſt before they opened it to ſpeak to him; and when he conferred any dignities or favours upon them, wiping the ſoles of his feet with the hair of their head. He aſſerted that he could lead five hundred thouſand men armed into the field, that being the purſuit to which all his ſubjects were bred, and the women only ſtaying at home to plant and manure the earth. He had himſelf fought two hundred and nine battles with great reputation and ſucceſs, and had conquered the great king of Ardah. The king's head was to this day preſerved with the fleſh and hair; the heads of his generals were diſtinguiſhed by being placed on each ſide of the doors of the temples of their Fetiches; with the heads of the inferior officers they had paved the ſpace before the doors; and the heads of the common ſoldiers formed a ſort of fring or outwork round the walls of the palace. Since this war he had experienced the greateſt good fortune and he hoped in time to be able to complete the outwalls of all his great houſes, to the number of ſeven, in the ſame manner.

On the twenty-firſt of May the queſtion once more came before parliament

parliament, as it was ſuppoſed for the purpoſe of voting Mr. Wilberforce's propoſitions. Mr. Sawbridge and lord Maitland opened the buſineſs by enquiring whether it were Mr. Wilberforce's intention to call any farther evidence; and obſerving, that the merchants and perſons intereſted in the queſtion were anxious for an opportunity of refuting the aſperſions that had been caſt upon them in the progreſs of this meaſure. Mr. Wilberforce replied, that he had not the leaſt intention of calling for farther evidence, becauſe he thought the report of the privy council, and the other documents before the houſe, ſufficient for the eſtabliſhment of all his propoſitions. With reſpect to evidence to be adduced by the parties concerned, it was not for him either to admit or refuſe it. The ſubject was now fully before the houſe, and they would of courſe in all reſpects judge and decide for themſelves.

Mr. Powys and Mr. Vyner declared that they had not yet formed an opinion upon the general queſtion, though they ſaw enough to induce them to conſent to the introduction of ſuch a bill as Mr. Wilberforce propoſed. They could however upon no account agree, that the report of the privy council was a proper ground for their proceedings. If parliament in any ſingle inſtance yielded upon a ſolemn and ſerious occaſion to act upon evidence, not delivered at their bar, or collected by a committee of their body, they would make a moſt alarming ſacrifice of the rules of their proceedings, and the privileges to which they were indebted for their conſtitutional importance. Mr. Pitt obſerved, that in his opinion all farther enquiry was needleſs, and could tend only to waſte the time of the houſe. Had parliament previouſly reſolved to receive no evidence on a given ſubject but from the privy council, that indeed would be to ſtrike at the privileges of the houſe of commons; but it was ſurely abſurd to ſuppoſe, that the houſe could upon no occaſion receive evidence, taken where it was moſt convenient to take it, and every part of it ſubject to new inveſtigation, if any one doubted its validity. The report of the privy council conſiſted firſt of calculations and accounts from the public offices, and next of written documents upon the ſubject, both of which were juſt as authentic, as if they had been laid ſeparately upon the table of that houſe. The remainder conſiſted of the teſtimony of witneſſes; and, if any one doubted of their veracity, it was open to him to go into a re-examination of the evidence, either in whole, or of each individual witneſs. Mr. Pitt obſerved, that the objection to the report had not originated with the country gentlemen, but with the avowed adverſaries of the meaſure, and added, that it was ſingular, that, while the report had been five weeks upon the table, no argument againſt its ſufficiency had been heard of, till at length the moment was arrived that the houſe was expected to come to an ultimate vote upon the ſubject.

Mr. Fox perfectly coincided with the ſentiments of Mr. Pitt. Mr. Burke declared that he was deciſively of opinion that no farther evidence could be neceſſary, to induce the houſe to aboliſh, what he would be bold to ſay was a ſyſtem of robbery. He proceeded to obſerve, that the idea of reimburſing to the Weſt-India merchants what they might loſe by the abolition, was totally contrary to

every principle of legiſlation. Government gave encouragement to any ſpecies of commerce, while it was regarded as conducive to the welfare of the community, or compatible with the ideas of humanity and juſtice; but they were competent to withdraw their countenance, when this commerce was found to be an injury and a diſgrace to the ſtate. Thoſe who engaged in it, knew the terms under which they were placed, and adopted it with all the riſks and probabilities with which it was accompanied: and of conſequence it was but juſt they ſhould be prepared to abide by the loſs that might accrue, when the public ſhould think proper no longer to ſupport it. Mr. Burke added, that, whatever were the preſent ſituation of Africa, it could never be meliorated under the preſent ſyſtem. While we continued to purchaſe the natives, they muſt for ever remain in a ſtate of ſavage barbarity. It was impoſſible to civilize a ſlave; it was contrary to the ſyſtem of human nature. There was no country, that was continued under ſuch diſadvantageous circumſtances, into which the ſhadow of improvement had ever been introduced.

In the progreſs of the debate Mr. Pitt appeared to relax from the oppoſition that he had at firſt exerted, againſt the propoſal of the friends of the ſlave trade. He believed he could anſwer for the conſent of Mr. Wilberforce to the preſent examination of witneſſes on the part of the petitioners; but he truſted that unneceſſary delays would not be introduced, as he could by no means ſubmit to the ultimate procraſtination of ſo important a buſineſs. Lord Maitland enquired, whether thoſe perſons, who produced evidence againſt the propoſitions, would be permitted to ſtate ſuch allegations upon the ſecond reading of the bill, as they might not be prepared to adduce in the preſent ſtage of the buſineſs. Mr. Pitt replied, that this would be contrary to all the uſual modes of proceeding in ſimilar caſes. Though any member might produce ſuch objections as were calculated to overthrow the reaſonings of the petitioners, it did not follow that farther evidence was to be heard to controvert theſe replies, ſince in that caſe it was impoſſible to foreſee an end to any important buſineſs. He was however willing to give every opportunity to thoſe who conſidered their intereſts as ſo immediately concerned in the meaſure; but he truſted that at all events they would endeavour as much as poſſible to adduce the whole of their evidence upon the firſt examination. Mr. Fox coincided in theſe ſentiments.

After this debate the houſe of commons immediately proceeded to the hearing of witneſſes upon this important ſubject; at the ſame time that ſeveral attempts were made on the part of the Weſt-India proprietors to procraſtinate and interrupt the progreſs of the buſineſs. A motion was twice made for a call of the houſe, in order to obtain a full attendance at the period of the ultimate deciſion, and at length on the twenty-third of June Mr. alderman Newnham, with the conſent of Mr. Wilberforce, moved that the farther conſideration of the ſubject ſhould be deferred to the next ſeſſion. It was remarked by Mr. William Smith, that, though he was anxious to have the queſtion brought to an iſſue, he ſaw that it was impoſſible it ſhould be decided in the preſent ſeſſion. He had not however heard any

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good reaſon why the examination of witneſſes might not be carried on for ſome weeks longer. It was known that the hearing of evidence was at all times thinly attended. If therefore the few members that did attend were willing to give up their time a little longer, why ſhould other members complain of an inconvenience, in the ſuffering of which they took no ſhare? Mr. Smith thought, that by this proceeding the examination of witneſſes on the part of the merchants might be finiſhed, and of conſequence the buſineſs brought into a very deſirable ſtate of forwardneſs againſt the enſuing ſeſſion. The queſtion was carried without a diviſion; and the tranſactions of the houſe under this head were concluded by the renewal of ſir William Dolben's act, to regulate for a limited time the mode of conveying ſlaves in Britiſh veſſels from the coaſt of Africa.

The annual buſineſs of the budget was not brought forward in the preſent year till the tenth of June; and, immediately previous to this diſcuſſion, the office of ſpeaker of the houſe of commons was a ſecond time vacated, by the promotion of Mr. Grenville to the ſituation of one of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate, upon the reſignation of lord Sydney. Upon this occaſion the marquis of Graham and Mr. Groſvenor moved, that Mr. Henry Addington, who was the perſonal friend of Mr. Pitt, and the ſon of doctor Stephen Addington, phyſician to Mr. Pitt's family, ſhould be appointed to the chair. The name of ſir Gilbert Elliot was propoſed on the part of oppoſition, by the ſame perſons who had brought it forward upon a former occaſion, and Mr. Fox and Mr. Burke, in ſupport of this amendment, took notice of the youth and inexperience of his competitor. At length the houſe divided, and the numbers appeared, in favour of Mr. Addington 215, and of ſir Gilbert Elliot 142.

In opening the budget Mr. Pitt remarked, that, though it might be neceſſary for him, to bring forward a large demand for the enſuing year above the ordinary amount of what might have been expected as a peace eſtabliſhment, and to have recourſe to extraordinary means of providing for that demand, he had no doubt, that a fair review of the revenue, and the circumſtances that called for this extraordinary ſupply, would confirm all that he had ever aſſerted of the improving ſtate of the finances, and, inſtead of weakening, would corroborate the expectations which had been raiſed three years before by the report of the committee appointed to examine the public accounts. Mr. Pitt ſtated the ſupplies which had been already voted at 5,540,000 l. and the ways and means which had been provided to diſcharge this ſum at 2,750,000 l. for the land and malt tax, 270,000 l. for the lottery, and 1,530,000 l. for the ſurplus of the fund conſolidated for the diſcharge of intereſt of the national debt. The growing progreſs of the ſinking fund he eſtimated at 2,050,000 l. but from this he deducted 520,000 l. for the deficiency of the taxes of the preceding year, which reduced the exiſting ſurplus to the ſum he had mentioned. What then was the actual ſituation of the finances? In 1786 the ſubject of diſpute had been, firſt whether we could pay the extraordinary expences that muſt accrue before we arrived at a regular peace eſtabliſhment without having recourſe to a loan, and next whether

ther the revenue would correſpond to the ſum ſtated by the committee of accounts as neceſſary to pay the intereſt of the public debt, and to afford a ſurplus of one million annually towards its liquidation. From 1786 we had raiſed no money by loan; it would now be neceſſary to raiſe the ſum of a million; and we had ſince that time increaſed the navy debt 500,000l. Now let it be conſidered what had been the extraordinary expences ſince that time. We had paid 3,500,000l. above the average peace eſtabliſhment, 852,000l. to the loyaliſts, 216,000l. for the prince of Wales's debts, 210,000l. for the debts of the civil liſt, and 253,000l. for the expence of the armament; which ſums taken together were equal to the navy debt incurred and the million he propoſed to borrow. Thus in three years 3,500,000l. had been paid above the calculation of the committee, and 3,750,000l. for the reduction of the national debt, which had been applied to the diſcharge of more than four millions of the public burthen. Notwithſtanding theſe circumſtances, if the unforeſeen miſcellaneous expences he had enumerated had not occurred, we ſhould not only have been able to provide for the extraordinary million without any additional burthen to the people, but ſhould not even have wanted a ſubſtitute for the ſhop-tax. He might therefore congratulate himſelf and his country, that the hopes he had entertained were well founded, and the calculations of the committee been verified to a degree of accuracy ſeldom to be expected in ſuch ſubjects. Mr. Pitt added, that the annual revenue, which had been taken by the committee at 15,500,000l. appeared upon an average of the two preceding years to have produced 15,578,000l.

In providing for the million which was to be raiſed by a loan, Mr. Pitt had felt it his duty to ſubſtantiate a principle, that might give credit and confidence to the unalienable application of the ſinking fund. For this purpoſe it was indiſpenſible, either to increaſe the ſinking fund in proportion to the national debt, or to add to the preſent taxes without enlarging the funded debt. The laſt of theſe methods was that which he had preferred. He meant to raiſe a million by annuities with benefit of ſurvivorſhip, by which means a tax would be raiſed that in time would extinguiſh itſelf. There was another ſum which it was not neceſſary to add to the regular ſupply. This was an article of 191,000l. which had been lent by government in the mode of ſecret ſervice abroad out of the civil liſt, which would not eventually add to the expences of the country, but was to be paid by inſtalments and with intereſt. He did not imagine that parliament would object to the making up this ſum to the civil liſt in the mean time, and he intended to provide for it by ſhort annuities to a ſimilar amount. The intereſt of the million intended to be borrowed he would take at 44,750l. which together with the deficiency from the ſhop-tax, the produce of which in the preceding year had been 56,000l. would afford a ſum of about 100,000l. to be raiſed by new taxes. The taxes Mr. Pitt ſuggeſted were an additional half-penny on every news-paper, which would produce 28,000l. an additional ſixpence on advertiſements 9,000l, an additional duty on cards and dice 9,000l, a farther duty on the probates of wills 18,260l, on legacies to collateral

teral relations 5,000l, and on carriages and horſes 41,740l. Mr. Pitt concluded with ſtating, that in the caſe of the loan he had acted upon principles of the ſtricteſt œconomy, and that the taxes he propoſed could not poſſibly affect the poor, the ſtraitened and the laborious.

Mr. Sheridan, who had in ſeveral preceding inſtances diſplayed a minute attention to ſubjects of finance, particularly diſtinguiſhed himſelf upon the preſent occaſion. He put it to the houſe whether, admitting the revenue were likely annually to amount to the ſum at which it was calculated, and even this required ſome conceſſion, it could reaſonably be expected that the expenditure would not greatly exceed the ſtatement of the committee of 1786. If that were the caſe, and experience had proved that it muſt be ſo, we were plainly deceived in our expectations, and our finances were not in the flouriſhing condition that had been deſcribed. Mr. Pitt had dilated emphatically upon the unforeſeen contingencies of miſcellaneous ſervices that had occurred; but theſe contingencies, upon the fulleſt ſtatement that could be made of them, ſcarcely roſe to 600,000l. above the amount, at which they had actually been eſtimated by the committee. This ſum, diſtributed upon a period of three years, afforded an annual exceſs of no more than 200,000l. So paltry an increaſe was to defeat and annul all the high ſounding promiſes of the miniſter, and reduce us to the extremity of an additional loan and accumulated taxes. In like manner it might be preſumed from principles of analogy, that another 600,000l. from unforeſeen contingencies would ariſe in the time to come, and we ſhould hereafter be prevented, as we had hitherto been, from emerging from the embarraſſments of our ſituation. Mr. Pitt had amuſed the houſe by informing them that we had paid off three millions of the national debt; but he did not think it to his purpoſe to inform them, that in the year in which he began to pay he had created a new debt of a million, by iſſuing exchequer bills to that amount, and that this year we were creating another debt of a million. He did not bring into his eſtimate about two millions which had been received during this time from the Eaſt-India company, and from other accidental but not inconſiderable ſources. The houſe was alſo to recollect under this article the increaſe of navy debt to the amount of 500,000l. If Mr. Pitt had ſtated all theſe circumſtances, it would have appeared, that, with the aſſiſtance of more than four millions, he had ſucceeded in the notable undertaking of paying off three millions of national debt. But the time muſt come, when the bubble would burſt and the illuſion be diſſipated. It was better to meet our ſituation fairly and honourably. By poſtponing the evil day our diſtreſs would only accumulate; and, when we expected to drink of the cup of gladneſs, we ſhould find nothing but the bitter dregs of diſappointment. Mr. Sheridan concluded with giving notice of his intention, to move for a committee, for the purpoſe of making a freſh enquiry into the ſtate of the public income and expenditure.

Mr. Fox obſerved, that the real cauſe of the difference between the eſtimate of the committee of 1786 and the actual expenditure, was not to be found in any articles of miſcellaneous ſervice, but in the high

expences that were now incurred under the head of navy, army and ordnance. It was not therefore to be ſuppoſed that this expence would be momentary, nor was there any thing ſo peculiar in the preſent complexion of things, as to make them hope, that what was admitted to be perfectly proper now, would become improper the next time they ſhould have to provide for the public exigencies. They were told, that the very diſtinguiſhed ſituation, which Britain now held among the nations of Europe, was one cauſe of the increaſed expenditure and the new impoſitions. If this were the caſe, Mr. Fox hoped that the cauſe of the increaſed expenditure, and conſequently the expenditure itſelf would ſtill ſubſiſt. It was neceſſary, they had been told, for the purpoſe of protecting the ſettlements abroad, to furniſh them with an additional number of regiments; but it would not be leſs neceſſary to protect them in future years than at the preſent moment. The ſame argument would perfectly apply to the increaſed expence that had been incurred by voting an additional number of ſeamen. He had therefore no doubt, that the ſyſtem of the laſt three years would ſtill continue, and that conſequently any relief to the public from a probable reduction of its expences was juſt as far off now, as at the moment of making the report of 1786.

Mr. Huſſey complained of the mode in which Mr. Pitt treated the revenue, as deluſive, fallacious, and full of peril to the public at large. Mr. Baillard declared, that he had felt moſt painfully upon the preſent occaſion, and that had he conceived the finances to have been in the unfavourable ſituation in which they now too plainly appeared, he certainly would not have oppoſed the wine and poſt horſe taxes of preceding ſeſſions, and for the ſame reaſon ſhould be inclined to ſupport ſuch meaſures as the miniſter now propoſed for increaſing the national income. Mr. Steele, ſecretary to the treaſury, undertook to correct Mr. Sheridan reſpecting the million of exchequer bills, which he had ſtated as iſſued ſubſequently to the report of 1786, but which loan had in reality been made unqueſtionably prior to that period. Mr. Steele added, that Mr. Pitt had expreſsly ſaid in 1786, that, though he had expected to find extraordinary aids to enable him to proceed, yet extraordinary demands might occur, which would oblige him to a loan of one or two millions, a neceſſity, that at all events he would defer as long as he poſſibly could. Mr. Sheridan replied, that the exchequer bills had indeed been voted in 1785; but that they had been ſtated as reſerved to be employed if occaſion ſhould ariſe, and that 700,000l. of them had actually remained uniſſued at the time of making the report of the committee. Mr. Sheridan added, that he had never heard any aſſertion with more aſtoniſhment, than that of Mr. Steele reſpecting Mr. Pitt's prediction of a loan. He would not appeal to his own memory of a ſpeech delivered three years ago, but he would put it to the houſe, whether it were not utterly impoſſible, that the miniſter could thus have contradicted the report of his own committee. In that report there was not the ſmalleſt hint of the probability of a future loan. Was it to be concluded, that Mr. Pitt could ſo far forget his object as to ſay to the houſe of commons, that

he might want the ſmall ſum of a million or two towards the paying off three millions of the national debt?

One of the proviſions of the bill for impoſing an additional duty on news-papers, was intended to reſtrain the news-hawkers from the privilege of lending their news-papers to read for a ſmall gratuity. A petition was preſented againſt this clauſe, which it was determined could not be received conſiſtently with the rule of not admitting a remonſtrance againſt a tax, in the year in which it was impoſed. It was ſtated by Mr. Pitt, that the poſſibility of ſecuring a revenue from the propoſed addition entirely depended upon the putting an end to the practice of hiring news-papers. Mr. Sheridan on the contrary undertook to prove, that the clauſe was calculated for the ſingle purpoſe of ſoothing one ſet of men by oppreſſing another, and that, as the hawkers and pedlars had formerly been ſacrificed to the ſhopkeepers, ſo now the news-men were to be ſacrificed to the news-paper printers. The additional tax on advertiſements he alſo conſidered as injudicious. It was not the caſual advertiſers who were to be conſidered in forming a revenue, but thoſe with whom it conſtituted a regular expenditure, as the auctioneers and the bookſellers. The latter allotted a certain ſum for advertiſing, according to the price of the book, and, by increaſing the charge, government would only oblige them to diminiſh the number of their advertiſements.

An important operation of revenue that falls under the preſent year, was the removal of the collection of the duty upon tobacco from the cuſtoms to the exciſe. The ſubject was opened to the houſe of commons on the ſixteenth of June, and Mr. Pitt introduced it by obſerving, that tobacco was now to be conſidered as the ſmuggler's ſtaple, in the ſame manner as he had formerly dealt in tea, wine and ſpirits. The quantity of tobacco conſumed in this kingdom was found to bear a tolerably near proportion to the quantity of tea, and at leaſt one half of this quantity was the excluſive commodity of the ſmuggler. The conſumption amounted to fourteen millions of pounds, and the loſs to the revenue upon the half of this conſumption was three or four hundred thouſand pounds per annum. Under theſe circumſtances, Mr. Pitt had thought it neceſſary to adopt an immediate expedient for the ſuppreſſion of ſo enormous a fraud, and he had only two alternatives, either to lower the duty ſo as to deprive the ſmuggler of all chance of ſucceſs, or to ſubject the manufacturers of tobacco to the ſurvey of the exciſe. The firſt of theſe he thought too hazardous an experiment to be ventured upon, while the ſuperior advantages of the latter were obvious. Every one muſt be aware how much ſtronger was the check that aroſe from taking the ſtock of the dealer, than that of merely collecting the duty upon the importation. The peculiar benefit of this plan had been exemplified in a recent inſtance in the article of wine, in which, though it had not yet had a fair trial, a great and obvious increaſe of the legal ſale had been obtained.

The idea of an extenſion of the exciſe had formerly been in the higheſt degree unpopular in this country, and had nearly occaſioned the ruin of the miniſters by whom at different times it had been attempted. It was conſidered as a maxim of the Engliſh conſtitution, that the houſe

of every citizen was ſacred and could not be entered without his conſent, unleſs he had firſt made himſelf amenable to the criminal juſtice of his country. It was another maxim of our conſtitution, that every man had a right to be tried by his peers, and that it was in no caſe allowable that the facts in litigation between any two parties ſhould be decided upon by the officer and repreſentative of the ſovereign. Both theſe maxims were ſuperſeded by the ſyſtem of exciſe. But the ſentiments of the people of England appear to have undergone a certain revolution upon theſe ſubjects. The various projects of Mr. Pitt for the purpoſe of extending the exciſe, if not poſitively approved, were contemplated with apathy and indifference; and accordingly the ſubject of the tobacco bill did not give riſe to a regular debate till the queſtion for the third reading on the fifteenth of July. In the mean time petitions were preſented from the perſons who fell under the new ſyſtem, and they were permitted to be heard by themſelves and their counſel. Their principal allegations conſiſted of two parts; firſt, that the introduction of the exciſe would lead to the diſcloſure of their myſteries, and to the conſequent ruin of their manufacture; and ſecondly, that the proceedings of the exciſe, ſuch as gauging and weighing, were from the nature of the commodity altogether inapplicable. Several amendments were introduced in the committee, and one in particular which was intended in a conſiderable degree to remove the objection of diſcloſing ſecrets in the manufacture of ſnuff. A farther amendment was ſuggeſted by ſir Watkin Lewes, for the purpoſe of allowing the manufacturers an appeal from the deciſion of the commiſſioners of exciſe to a trial by jury. This amendment was oppoſed by Mr. Beaufoy, who had formerly exerted himſelf to obtain the eſtabliſhment of a ſimilar meaſure; becauſe, as he alledged, the preſent amendment was ſo injudiciouſly expreſſed, as to enable the ſmuggler, by bringing his action againſt the exciſe officer and all his aſſiſtants, to diſqualify the perſons who were alone able to prove the exiſtence of the fraud from being witneſſes upon the trial. The clauſe was rejected upon a diviſion.

Mr. Fox apologiſed for not having attended the progreſs of the buſineſs in its earlier ſtages. From the manner in which the firſt mention of the bill had been received, he had clearly ſeen that little effectual oppoſition could be made againſt it. One of the members for the borough of Southwark had expreſſed his ſurpriſe, that oppoſition had omitted ſo favourable an opportunity of acquiring to themſelves popularity. In the opinion of Mr. Fox however, if any ſuch weak and idle motive could influence his public conduct, there was no reaſon to ſuppoſe that the preſent juncture could be favourable for that purpoſe. So far from oppoſition to the meaſure being popular, he had every reaſon to believe that the reverſe was the fact, and that the people of this country were ſo changed in their nature and altered in their feelings, as to have become as it were enamoured of the collectors of taxes, eſpecially under the exciſe laws, and with eagerneſs and complacence to invite the moſt wanton exerciſes of power. He exclaimed againſt the unreaſonableneſs of the members particularly intereſted in the preſent

queſtion,

queſtion, who expected on every occaſion, when the inſtructions of their conſtituents or ſome perſonal motives to themſelves induced them to wiſh the meaſures of the miniſter oppoſed, that he and thoſe who acted with him would be at their command and ready to act as the perpetual adverſary of the exiſting government. What was this but to ſay, "We have raiſed one man to a degree of power, which makes all oppoſition uſeleſs; by our falſe clamours againſt you and our deluſions reſpecting him, we have taught the public to look upon him as ſomething more than man. Hence his meaſures, however miſchievous, however fatal, are ſcarcely to be reſiſted; but remember it is your province to take care that he does no harm, and to ſound the alarm whenever danger ſhall appear to lurk under plauſible and ſpecious pretences."

Mr. Fox proceeded to examine the principle of the meaſure. He had been told that the exciſe upon wines had proved ſucceſsful, but, if it were ever ſo ſucceſsful, he ſhould ſtill be the adverſary of that meaſure. He had oppoſed it, and would oppoſe every extenſion of the exciſe laws, becauſe he was convinced they were a ſyſtem of laws under which no freeman ought to live, and were utterly incompatible with the principles of juſt and equal government. He was aware, that, with ſome men, an increaſe of revenue outweighed every other conſideration. His own opinion was different, and, however old faſhioned it might be, he gloried in ſaying, that, if the exciſe on tobacco would bring in half a million a year, he would ſtill oppoſe it. It was the infringement upon our liberties and conſtitution, hitherto regarded as ineſtimable, that he reſiſted, and which he foreſaw would fall a ſacrifice to conſiderations of revenue. He however underſtood from perſons who might be ſuppoſed beſt acquainted with the ſubject, that the preſent bill was likely to diminiſh the produce of the duty, and eſſentially to wound the trade from which it was derived. He adverted to the different attempts that had been made for extending the exciſe, and applauded the conduct of ſir Robert Walpole, who, however traduced, had in his opinion been a wiſe miniſter for this country, in relinquiſhing the ſcheme he had formed. The next undertaking of a ſimilar nature had been the exciſe upon cyder in the adminiſtration of the earl of Bute. Upon that occaſion a diſtinction had been made by the opponents of the miniſter, and it was ſaid, that the exciſe upon cyder brought the officers of the revenue into the houſe of the private gentleman. Mr. Fox ſaw no force in this diſtinction. The ſhop of the trader was as much his caſtle, as the manſion of a man of family and fortune. He could perceive no reaſon, why the benefit of a trial by jury ſhould be confined to the comparatively idle, and denied to thoſe who were employed in manufacture and trade.

Mr. Fox aſcribed the ſucceſs of this and ſimilar attempts, to the apathy of the people in general, and their indifference to the application of the exciſe laws in any particular inſtance. If the tobacconiſt, when he ſaw the wine-merchant exciſed, ſtood by, and ſaid, Let him be the ſufferer, ſo that I remain free, he ſcarcely deſerved to be aſſiſted when the caſe became his own. Other trades, that perhaps as little expected ſuch an event, would, he had no doubt,

doubt, be ſoon called upon to ſtand in a ſimilar ſituation. He declared that he had come down to the houſe upon that day, not ſo much with any hope of ſucceſsfully oppoſing the bill, as with a view to enter his general proteſt againſt a ſcheme which he completely diſapproved. The meaſure ſeemed little to intereſt the public in general; and, if parliament would not attend their duty, and the nation abandoned it, he ſaw no proſpect of ſtemming the tide. It ſeemed as if liberty and a free conſtitution were merely talked of and not felt; as if they were words only fit to decorate a ſpeech in parliament; a beautiful theory, but no longer compatible with practice or fit for enjoyment. Standing as we did, the firſt country for literature, for ſcience, and all which could improve and adorn mankind, it muſt mortify every man, who admired the freedom of our conſtitution and the equality of our laws, that the ſources of our eminence ſhould be ſo completely and irremediably forgotten.

Mr. Grenville in the abſence of Mr. Pitt from indiſpoſition replied to Mr. Fox. They had been told, that they ought not for the ſake of revenue to ſacrifice liberty and the conſtitution. To that ſentiment he was perſuaded there was not a member in the houſe, or a citizen of the country, that would not cordially ſubſcribe. But how did this principle apply to the preſent ſubject? The exciſe laws, they all knew, had been promoted and paſſed in the beſt periods of our hiſtory, and when the greateſt characters that ever dignified a country had adorned our annals: and yet none of theſe men had ever thought it incumbent upon them generally to oppoſe the ſyſtem of exciſe, as a ſyſtem under which no freeman ought to be placed. Mr. Fox's argument, if it proved any thing, proved that the whole ought to be abandoned; and then why did not he come forward and ſay, "Under the exciſe laws it is true we "gain ſix millions of revenue, and I "admit that national bankruptcy "would follow if thoſe ſix millions "were abandoned. But we muſt "not ſacrifice conſtitution to re-"venue, and therefore I am bound "to propoſe the repeal of the whole "ſyſtem." Mr. Grenville called to the recollection of the houſe the ſituation in which an honeſt and conſcientious trader was placed by the exiſting laws. He muſt either carry on the manufacture with ſcrupulous integrity, though he could ſcarcely live by it, or he muſt reſolutely plunge into thoſe enormous frauds that enabled other men to drive him out of the market. Notwithſtanding theſe arguments he would however acknowledge, that, if the project could truly be ſhewn to be dangerous to the liberties of the people, he would have refuſed it his concurrence. But was it dangerous? Undoubtedly not. They only propoſed to put three thouſand people more under the exciſe laws than were under them before, and to have recourſe to that which in a different form had exiſted for a long ſeries of years without the ſmalleſt injury to our liberty or our conſtitution. Mr. Dundas expreſſed his regret, that Mr. Fox had taken ſo much pains to decry the ſyſtem of exciſe, ſince he was of opinion that, whenever at any future period a capital addition to the revenue ſhould be wanted, it could only be obtained by recurring to an extenſion of the exciſe. The houſe divided upon the queſtion for a third reading, ayes 70, noes 20.

In the houſe of lords the bill was loudly condemned by lord Stormont. The preſent meaſure, he ſaid, had originated from the project of ſir Robert Walpole, which had been defeated by the reſolute reſiſtance of the people of England. That project however was accompanied with an alleviating circumſtance, the right of appeal from the commiſſioners of exciſe to the judges, not the ſmalleſt trace of which was to be found in the preſent bill. The authors of the ſyſtem now under diſcuſſion, were ſo egregiouſly miſtaken in the outſet, that they had found themſelves, in the progreſs of the bill through the houſe of commons, obliged altogether to abandon their original deſign, that of allowing the officer to take ſtock during the progreſs of the manufacture. Theſe original miſtakes, and the ſubſequent improvements that had been endeavoured to be made, had rendered the bill one maſs of inconſiſtency, abſurdity and contradiction. It was impoſſible that its proviſions ſhould be carried into execution. It was impoſſible by any proceſs of alteration and amendment to reduce the law into a uniform and practicable ſyſtem. Lord Thurlow expreſſed himſelf in terms of high commendation of the objections and reaſonings of lord Stormont, and declared that they were ſuch, as he hoped would leave a laſting impreſſion on the minds of the houſe. He ſhould conſent to the bill's proceeding to the ſtage in which it was uſual to inveſtigate its clauſes, though he muſt confeſs himſelf totally unable to refute the cogent arguments they had heard. Lord Thurlow defended the general principle of the bill. When the miniſter had formed the deſign of putting an end to the illicit trade in tobacco, he could not think he was to be blamed for leaving the duties as he found them, and not reducing them to an inferior rate; and he conceived, that, thus circumſtanced, there were perhaps no means that could be adequate to the end propoſed, but that of ſubjecting the commodity to the ſurvey of the exciſe. Approving however of the principle of the bill, he thought very differently of its clauſes and proviſions. He admitted that the firſt lord of the treaſury ought not to be made accountable for the inaccuracies of the preſent law, and he declared, that, in his opinion, the man who was qualified to draw a revenue bill of this deſcription, was unfit to be the firſt miniſter of a great country. The minutiæ of regulation were neceſſarily left to ſubordinate characters. Bills of this ſort were careleſsly drawn by perſons, who religiouſly adhered to certain phraſes which they applied indiſcriminately to all caſes; perſons who could write, but could not read; and it was always neceſſary that what they had drawn ſhould be carefully and laboriouſly corrected by others. He ſtrongly objected to the clauſe, which empowered the exciſeman to enter without a conſtable into the warehouſes and elaboratories of the manufacturer. Nor did he care for the argument, that the law was ſanctioned by the uniform practice of the exciſe laws ſince the reign of queen Anne. Had it been obſerved without interruption from the conqueſt, he ſhould oppoſe it; no length of time could change oppreſſion into juſtice, nor could any conſideration on earth induce him to conſent to a bill which might endanger the ſecrets of trade. The duke of Rich-

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mond adopted a part of the reaſoning of lord Thurlow, and declared, that, though he approved the general deſign of the meaſure, he ſhould hold himſelf bound, if this part of the bill were unaltered, to give his negative to the whole. In diſcuſſing the individual clauſes, lord Thurlow moved an amendment, which he ſtated to be neceſſary in order to render a part of the bill conformable to the intention of its authors, which was rejected upon a diviſion. The duke of Leeds moved an amendment of a ſimilar deſign to another part of the bill, which was at firſt received, but afterwards obliged to be withdrawn, the bill being of a nature in which the commons allowed the lords to make no alterations.

Mr. Sheridan brought forward his promiſed motion for a committee to enquire into the ſtate of the finances on the tenth of July. He apologiſed for the lateneſs of the period which he had taken for ſubmitting to the houſe ſo important a diſcuſſion, a circumſtance which, he ſaid, was entirely aſcribable to Mr. Pitt, who, according to his uſual cuſtom, had deferred opening the budget till a period of the ſeſſion, which he had thought likely to render any ſubſequent examination of his ſtatements impracticable. Mr. Sheridan did not propoſe the preſent meaſure, becauſe he thought the reſult of the enquiry would afford cauſe for deſpondence. He did not mean to aſcribe the leaſt blame to the miniſter for endeavouring to begin the liquidation of the public debt in 1786; what he blamed was, that, when he came to wind up the expences of the war, he had not had fortitude and candour enough to ſtate the account fairly. At the end of a war, which, though expenſive and partly unſucceſsful, had been glorious; which had exhibited us contending againſt the united force of France, Spain and Holland, repelling their attacks, and ſcattering their fleets, the intrepidity and patriotiſm of the people would have been equal to the demands of their ſituation; they would have ſubmitted to the taxes neceſſary to the maintaining a proper peace eſtabliſhment, the paying the intereſt of the debt, and providing a ſurplus for its gradual liquidation. But, when they found, after having been told that there was ſuch a ſurplus, and after ſix years of profound peace, that inſtead of reducing their expences, they muſt bear new taxes to pay the intereſt of freſh loans, they muſt loſe all confidence in the miniſter, in whom their confidence had been gratuitous and unbounded; they muſt loſe all confidence in their own repreſentatives, and look upon themſelves as meant only to be deceived and oppreſſed. Mr. Sheridan aſked, ſuppoſing a change of adminiſtration had taken place upon an occaſion, when, as they all recollected, it was generally expected, what would have been the effect of this deception? Mr. Pitt, it would have been echoed from one end of the kingdom to the other, kept up public credit, and provided a ſurplus; theſe men borrow money, impoſe taxes, and diſſipate the revenue by anticipation.

Mr. Sheridan undertook to demonſtrate four propoſitions. That the report of the committee of 1786 did not appear to be founded in fact, or verified by experiment: that for the three laſt years the expenditure had exceeded the income to the amount of two millions, and might be expected to do ſo for three years

to come: that no progreſs had hitherto been made in the reduction of the national debt: and that there was no ground for rational expectation that any progreſs could be made for this purpoſe, without a conſiderable increaſe of the annual income or reduction of the expenditure. Mr. Pitt had ſtated the actual amount of the revenue to be greater than the eſtimate given in the report of the committee. The ground upon which this ſtatement was built, was an average of the produce of the years 1787 and 1788. But, if they meant to take an average of two years only, the year preceding and the year following the commercial treaty would have afforded a proper baſis; becauſe, as much as the cuſtoms were injured by the expectation of the treaty in the one year, ſo much would they naturally be increaſed in the year immediately following. If on the other hand the average of the three laſt years were to be taken, the produce of the revenue would appear to fall ſhort of the calculation of the committee by the ſum of 30,000 l. This deficiency was not great; but then neither was it to be conſidered as the whole. The committee calculated on the taxes at that time ſubſiſting; and ſince that time ſome open and much greater clandeſtine additions had been made to them. The amount of theſe additions Mr. Sheridan calculated at 300,000 l, which ſum, he contended, was to be conſidered as a defalcation on the produce of the permanent taxes. He added, that the whole annual produce of all the taxes, including the land and malt tax, was leſs by about 200,000 l. than it had been eſtimated by the committee; and, if this were added to the 300,000 l, upon which the committee did not calculate, their calculation would appear to be erroneous by about 500,000 l. Mr. Sheridan indulged in a digreſſion upon what he ſtyled the uniform practice of the chancellor of the exchequer, to bring forward his tax bills at a period of the ſeſſion, when he was ſure they could not be properly inveſtigated. If this had ariſen from honeſt idleneſs, there would be ſome excuſe; but it proceeded from deſign, and the end was obvious. He had himſelf enquired why the miniſter was ſo dilatory, and had been told by one of his friends, that it was not procraſtination and indolence, but that he waited till members were gone into the country. All Mr. Pitt's revenue bills were unconnected, diſjointed and deſultory; for, if they were not ſo when firſt brought in, they had ſo many things altered, amended and added before they went through, that the original was hardly to be traced. He was at as much pains to make laws ſo as to eſcape obſervation, as the ſmugglers were to elude the efficacy of his laws. The ſuſpenſion of acts of parliament by the lords of the treaſury was now thought a trivial matter, but was indeed a very ſerious evil. Independently of the extent to which the practice, once ſanctioned by a ſort of preſcription, might be carried, it was ſurely ſufficiently miſchievous to teach the people to diſtruſt their repreſentatives, to conſider the legiſlature as their tyrant and oppreſſor, and to look up for every act of grace or favour to the crown.

Mr. Sheridan proceeded in the ſame manner as he had done with the revenue, to take an average of the expenditure for the three laſt years, and ſtated it as amounting to 15,930,000 l. Of the various articles

articles compoſing this ſum, the only one in which a reduction appeared probable was that of miſcellaneous ſervices. This on the ſame average was 649,000 l. per annum. Did it ſeem likely that it would ever fall ſo low as 74,000 l, the ſum at which it was ſtated by the committee? Mr. Sheridan recapitulated the various items that compoſed this article, and aſked which of them was likely to diminiſh for ſeveral years to come. Would not the growing members of the royal family, ſome of them ſtand in need of ſeparate eſtabliſhments, and ſome of them be diſpoſed of in marriage? Would the ſalary to the ſecretary to the commiſſioners for reducing the national debt ceaſe? Were the claims of the American loyaliſts liquidated? Was the expence of Botany Bay at an end? Had the duke of Richmond no more powder mills to buy, and no more forts to build? It was to be obſerved, that, of the three years upon which he had calculated the whole public expenditure, the ſecond exceeded the firſt, and the third the ſecond. To this was to be added the increaſe of the navy debt, which had been ſuffered to multiply, after every profeſſion that it ſhould never exceed the ſum ſtated by the committee. If to the average expenditure and one third of the increaſed navy debt were to be added the ſum iſſued to the commiſſioners for the reduction of the national debt, the whole annual expenditure would be found to amount to 17,144,000 l. exceeding the average income by 1,940,000 l. Such was our preſent ſituation. The expence of the current year was ſomething above this eſtimate, that of the next could not be expected to be leſs. Mr. Sheridan obſerved, that we could never hope to ſtart upon a level, till we reduced the amount of the miſcellaneous ſervices to 74,000 l per annum, which could not be done for leſs than two millions; and, if this were added to the two millions deficiency, to the exceedings of the navy, army and ordnance, and to the increaſed navy debt, it would produce a ſum of little leſs than twelve millions actually expended in five years beyond the annual income.

Mr. Sheridan repeated the arguments he had formerly employed to prove, that we had made no progreſs in reducing the national debt; and that by loans and anticipations we had borrowed as much money on one ſide as we had paid off on the other. It had been urged, that it was unfair in the account of theſe loans, to include the tontine of the preſent year. This Mr. Sheridan would readily admit, if Mr. Pitt would aſſure him that a ſimilar loan would not be demanded in the enſuing year. But Mr. Pitt could not pledge himſelf to any ſuch promiſe, ſince he knew too well that inevitable neceſſity would compel a repetition of the preſent meaſure. Mr. Sheridan did not blame the induſtry of the miniſter in endeavouring to pay off the national debt; but he blamed the principle that was adopted by him in the purſuit of that object. The national debt was an intolerable weight upon the conſtitution; every hundred pounds of it was a perpetual mortgage in the hands of the crown, capable of being perverted to the moſt corrupt purpoſes of influence and oppreſſion; and therefore he would ſacrifice much to be relieved from it. But, ineſtimable as was this object, he could not conſent for the ſake of it, to

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en private dwelling houſes to the
de intruſion of an exciſe officer,
d to deprive the ſubject of trial by
y. Were theſe matters of indif-
ence to him in every other reſpect,
s regard for commerce, the great
urce of revenue, woul.. deter him
om having recourſe to ſuch me-
ods of increaſing it. When we
ked of the trade of this country
d the inexhauſtible reſources it af-
rded as the main props of our
eatneſs, we miſtook the effect for
e cauſe. To our conſtitution and
e manly confidence of every man
the ſucceſs of his own induſtry
d exertions which it inſpired, were
e indebted for our trade, and not
our trade for our conſtitution.
mong the ſources of revenue which
r. Sheridan condemned, he alſo
cluded the expedient of a lottery.
lowever the revenue might be be-
fited by it, the people were ſure
loſe both in their morals and their
duſtry. What was loſt by the
eople, was in fact a loſs to the pub-
; and this was of conſequence to
e conſidered as ſo pernicious a
ode of raiſing money, that it ought
ever to be reſorted to but in caſes
f the greateſt neceſſity. Mr. Sheri-
an concluded with obſerving, that
e ſhould move no reſolutions upon
ne articles he had ſtated, but pro-
oſe to refer them to a ſelect com-
ittee of independent members, who
ere neither in office nor candidates
or office. He intended no reflec-
on on the former committee; but
e could not think it creditable to
he miniſter to have his ſtatement of
he finances examined and approved
y a committee of his own friends.
He accordingly propoſed the names
f fifteen perſons, whom he had not
erſonally conſulted, but who, he was
erſuaded, would be ready to beſtow
a little of their time upon ſo im-
portant an enquiry. Eight of them
were perſons who uſually voted with
the miniſter, and by their deciſion
in all he had ſaid he was ready to
abide.

Mr. Grenville deſired to remind Mr. Sheridan, that, in balance againſt the improvements of the revenue which had been made ſince 1786, there ought to have been taken into the account the deficiencies which had been created by the alteration of tax bills for the ſake of public accommodation; in particular one in the horſe tax in favour of a moſt meritorious deſcription of men, the farmers; and another by the regulations of the diſtillery. Having treated the ſubject at conſiderable length, Mr. Grenville ſaid, that he aſked not now for the indulgence, but claimed the juſtice of the houſe, while he deſired them not to countenance a meaſure, which was founded in ſuppoſing the falſhood of thoſe calculations that he had proved to them to be true. Mr. Pitt expreſſed ſimilar ſentiments. He ſaid there was no queſtion between him and Mr. Sheridan, that could not that night be decided by the houſe with juſt as much propriety, as it could be decided by a committee. No taunting language therefore that could be uſed, no invective or defiance that might be thrown out, ſhould induce him to conſent to the appointment of a committee, which he conceived could be productive of no poſſible benefit to the public. Mr. Fox inforced the arguments of Mr. Sheridan, and ſpoke with great commendation of the ſentiments he had expreſſed relatively to the injurious operation of the national debt; but added, that he was not like him prepared to object to lotteries as a

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ſource of revenue. Mr. Sheridan's motion was rejected without a diviſion. Lord Rawdon brought forward a diſcuſſion in the houſe of lords, ſimilar to that of Mr. Sheridan in the houſe of commons.

The only remaining topic of the preſent ſeſſion was a diſcuſſion, firſt introduced in the houſe of commons on the ſixth of July, relatively to an application that had been made to miniſters by the French government, to permit the exportation of twenty thouſand ſacks of flour, in order to relieve the inhabitants of that country in the extreme ſcarcity under which they laboured. Mr. Pulteney having propoſed a queſtion to the miniſter upon the ſubject, Mr. Pitt replied that the application was ſuch, as did not upon a curſory view appear unfit to be complied with; but that government had not yet been able ſufficiently to digeſt their enquiries upon the ſubject, and that, when they had, they would offer the reſult to the conſideration of the houſe. Mr. Orde and Mr. Windham lamented that the topic had been at all mentioned in that public manner. It might lead to very great inconvenience, and the price of corn might ſuddenly riſe ſo as to produce all the effects of a ſcarcity at home. They wiſhed government had done whatever to them appeared proper, and had afterwards come to parliament for a bill of indemnity. As the ſubject appeared to be of ſuch a nature as by no means to admit of ſuſpenſe, Mr. Pitt on the following day preſented the minutes of the examination taken by the privy council, and named a committee of fifteen perſons to take the queſtion into their conſideration. The committee retired for a ſhort time, and then came to a reſolution, that, from a comparative view of the prices wheat and flour in France and England, twenty thouſand ſacks flour ought not to be exported.

About a fortnight later the ſu ject was revived by Mr. Windha who alluded to the riots that h taken place at Rouen and elſewhe on account of the ſcarcity of brea and deſired to know whether, as, the time which had elapſed, t diſtreſs in France might have au mented, and our proſpects of plen might have improved, there wou not be a propriety in taking th ſubject once again into conſidera tion. Mr. Courtenay alluded to t ſpirit of liberty that had lately bee manifeſted in the neighbouring kin dom, and conceived that it would highly becoming in us to diſplay o humanity towards them in ſuch ſituation, eſpecially as the quantit of flour they demanded amounted t only one day's conſumption for th country. It was anſwered on th part of adminiſtration, that the pro ſpect of our harveſts was diminiſhe rather than increaſed ſince the la enquiry, and that twenty thouſan ſacks was not a day's conſumption but the ſubſiſtence of a whole wee to the people of England.

The ſeſſion of parliament was con cluded on the eleventh of Auguſt b a ſpeech delivered by the lord chan cellor in the name of the ſovereign in which it was obſerved, that, though the good offices of himſelf and hi allies had not hitherto been effec tual for reſtoring the general tran quillity of Europe, the king had the ſatisfaction of ſeeing, that the far ther extenſion of hoſtilities had been prevented, and that the ſituation of affairs continued to promiſe to this country the uninterrupted enjoy ment of the bleſſings of peace.

PRIN-

PRINCIPAL

OCCURRENCES

In the Year 1789.

PRINCIPAL OCCURRENCES

In the Year 1789.

JANUARY.

1. ON Tuesday, December the 16th, the house of commons, in a committee of the whole house, passed the two following resolutions; the first unanimously, and the second by a majority of 268 against 204.

I. That it is the opinion of this committee, that his majesty is prevented by indisposition from coming to his parliament, and from attending to public business; and that the personal exercise of the royal authority is thereby, for the present, interrupted.

II. That it is the opinion of this committee, that it is the right and duty of the lords spiritual and temporal, and commons of Great Britain, now assembled, and lawfully, fully, and freely representing all the estates of the people of this realm, to provide the means of supplying the defect of the personal exercise of the royal authority, arising from his majesty's said indisposition, in such manner as the exigency of the case may appear to require.

They had likewise adjourned to a future day, the consideration of the following resolution.

III. Resolved, that for this purpose, and for maintaining entire the constitutional authority of the king, it is necessary that the said lords and commons should determine on the means whereby the royal assent may be given in parliament to such bill as may be passed by the two houses of parliament, respecting the exercise of the powers and authorities of the crown, in the name and on the behalf of the king, during the continuance of his majesty's present indisposition.

In consequence of the second resolution being carried, as above stated, a court of common council for the city of London was held at Guild-hall, on Thursday the 18th; when Mr. Dornford rose, and prefaced an intended motion by observing, that he thought too early an approbation could not be obtained, of the chancellor of the exchequer and the majority of the house of commons, on the preceding Tuesday.

He therefore moved, "That the thanks of the court be given to the right hon. W. Pitt, chancellor of the exchequer, and the 267 worthy members of the honourable house of commons, for their strenuous support of the important rights of the lords and commons of this realm, to provide the means of supplying the defect of the personal exercise of the royal authority, arising from his majesty's indisposition." Mr. sheriff Curtis seconded the motion, which was likewise supported by sir Benjamin Hammet, sir Watkin Lewes, Mr. deputy Birch, Mr. deputy White, and Mr. Box. On the other hand, it was warmly opposed by the aldermen Newnham, Sawbridge, Pickett, Newman, and Skinner, Mr. deputy Thorpe, and Mr. Goodbehere. —The recorder being in his place as the law officer of the city, delivered

his ſentiment; in which he diſapproved of the deciſion of the houſe of commons, and conſequently of the vote of thanks propoſed. This, however, was finally carried; the numbers being, for Mr Dornford's motion, 7 aldermen and 45 commoners; and againſt it, 5 aldermen and 21 commoners.

On Monday the 22d a wardmote was held for the ward of Billingſgate, when the thanks of the ward were unanimouſly voted to Joſiah Dornford, eſq. one of the repreſentatives of the ſaid ward, for the motion which he had made in the preceding court of common council.

On Wedneſday the 24th, at a wardmote held at Leatherſeller's Hall, the following motion was made and carried, viz.

"That at this important criſis, when the great council of the nation is deliberating upon the means of calling upon the Heir Apparent to take upon himſelf, as of right or otherwiſe, the legal and conſtitutional exerciſe of the powers of the crown, during the much lamented affliction of the ſovereign, it is the duty, as well of bodies corporate as of individual ſubjects, to wait the final reſult of ſuch deliberations; and that all corporate attempts to publiſh reſolves and declarations, upon a ſubject of ſuch magnitude and intricacy, are premature, highly improper, and ought to be reſiſted by all good citizens."

And, on Monday, the 29th, at a wardmote held for the ward of Cripplegate within, the two following reſolutions were unanimouſly carried: viz.

Reſolved, "That the ſafety of the king's perſon, crown, and his prerogative, can never be ſo well ſecured, or ſo conſtitutionally truſted in any hands as in thoſe of his two faithful houſes of parliament, or in the perſon or perſons whom they in their high wiſdom ſhall think it expedient to appoint for that purpoſe.

Reſolved, "That the thanks of this wardmote be given to the worſhipful the court of common council, for their reſolution of the 18th of December 1788, whereby the thanks of the city of London were voted to the right hon. William Pitt, and his 267 worthy coadjutors of the houſe of commons, who in ſo manly and able a manner defended the rights of the king and of the parliament."

6. A draught for 1000l. was received in the chamber of London, incloſed in the following letter from the prince of Wales's treaſurer, addreſſed to the chamberlain.

"Sir,

"His royal highneſs the prince of Wales, apprehending that the poor of the city of London might ſuſtain ſome hardſhip and inconvenience, in this inclement ſeaſon, from the delay of the king's annual bounty, ariſing from the preſent unfortunate ſtate of his majeſty's health, has commanded me to pay 10001. into the chamber of London, to be applied for the relief of the poor, in the ſame manner that his majeſty's bounty has uſually been. I have the honour to be, &c.

HENRY LYTE."

7. A remarkable inſtance of the power of conſcience has juſt occurred. The ſecretary of the Sun Fire-office received a letter, written in a foreign hand, incloſing a bank note of 100l. which the writer of the letter deſired ſhould be carried to the account of the office, and acknowledged in a morning paper ſome day the firſt week of January, which was accordingly done.

12. Thirteen men brought a waggon with a ton of coals from Loughborough in Leiceſterſhire, to Carleton-houſe, as a preſent to the prince

prince of Wales. As ſoon as they were emptied into the cellar, Mr. Weltjie, clerk of the cellars, gave them four guineas, and as ſoon as the prince was informed of it, his royal highneſs ſent them 20 guineas. They performed their journey, which is 111 miles, in 11 days, and drew it all the way without any relief.

13. At a court of common council of the city of London, it was unanimouſly reſolved, "That his royal highneſs the prince of Wales be reſpectfully requeſted to accept the grateful acknowledgments of this court, for his ſpontaneous and truly princely beneficence to the poor in the metropolis, at this inclement ſeaſon—a beneficence equally diſtinguiſhed by the well-timed wiſdom of the gift, and the very gracious manner of conferring it."

It was alſo unanimouſly reſolved, "That the thanks be fairly tranſcribed, ſigned by the town-clerk, and preſented to his royal highneſs the prince of Wales by William Curtis, eſq. and ſir Benjamin Hammet, knight, aldermen, and ſheriffs of this city, Mr. Recorder, and Mr. Town-Clerk."

Afterward the town-clerk reported, that he had waited upon Mr. Pitt, with the vote of thanks of the court, purſuant to their order of the 18th of December, and that he had received the following letter in anſwer thereto:

"Downing-ſtreet, Dec, 20, 1788.

"Sir,

"Having had the honour of receiving, through your hands, a copy of the reſolution of the common council of the 18th inſtant, I beg the favour of you to take the firſt opportunity of expreſſing to the court my grateful acknowledgements for this diſtinguiſhed mark of their approbation, and of aſſuring them how much encouragement and ſatisfaction I derive from the public declaration of the ſentiments of ſo reſpectable a body, on an occaſion which immediately affects the rights of the lords and commons, and the eſſential principles of the conſtitution.

I am, Sir

Your obedient, faithful ſervant.

W. Rix, eſq. W. Pitt."

This letter was ordered to be entered in the journals of the court and to be inſerted in all the public papers.

14. A ſevere froſt commenced in London, on the 25th of November laſt, at night, two days before the new moon, with a very gentle E. wind: at eight the next morning the barometer, in London, was at 30.37, and the thermometer at 32. It continued exactly ſeven weeks, with the wind principally between the N. and E. though it ſhifted to all points, and was S. the whole of Dec. 31, accompanied with a great fall of ſnow. On the 5th inſtant the barometer was remarkably high, being at 30.78, with a gentle N. E. wind; the thermometer 21, at eight in the morning, and did not riſe higher than 26, ſo that this was the coldeſt day. Yeſterday, two days after the full moon, with the wind at E. (the point at which the froſt began), a ſudden change took place in the ſtate of the atmoſphere; for, after much ſnow during the morning, it began to rain at noon, and the drops froze when they reached the ground: this continued for ſome time, and, in the evening, there was a general thaw; the barometer 29.13, the thermometer 36, and the wind ſoutherly.

During the froſt, the ſcene upon the Thames, which was frozen quite over below London bridge, exemplified the promptitude with which the people of this country ſeize on every occaſion of profitable traffic.

No ſooner had the Thames acquired a ſufficient conſiſtency, than booths, turn-abouts, &c. &c. were erected; the puppet-ſhews, wild beaſts, &c. were tranſported from every adjacent village; while the watermen, that they might draw their uſual reſources from the water, broke the ice cloſe to the ſhore, and erected bridges, with toll bars, to make every paſſenger pay a halfpenny for getting to the ice. One of the ſuttling booths had for its ſign, "Beer, wine, and ſpirituous liquors, *without a licence*." A man who ſold hot gingerbread had a board, on which was written, "No ſhop-tax nor window duty." All the adventurers contended in theſe ſhort attractive ſentences for the preference of the company, and the Thames was generally crowded.—Two ſheep were roaſted on the ice, at Fulham, and ſold at eight-pence a pound.

Perhaps the breaking up of the fair upon the Thames by the thaw exceeded every idea that could be formed of it, as it was not till after the duſk of the evening that the buſy crowd were perſuaded of the approach of a thaw. This, however, with the cracking of ſome ice about eight, made the whole a ſcene of the moſt perfect confuſion, as men, beaſts, booths, turn-abouts, puppet-ſhows, &c. &c. were all in motion, and pouring toward the ſhore on each ſide. The confluence here was ſo ſudden and impetuous, that the watermen who had formed the toll-bars, over the ſides of the river, not being able to maintain their ſtation from the crowd, &c. pulled up the boards; by which a number of perſons who could not leap, or were borne down by the preſs, were ſouſed up to the middle. Happily very little damage was ſuſtained, except the loſs of a few hats, handkerchiefs, &c. by the light-fingered gentry, who availed themſelves of the confuſion. The difficulty of landing at the ſtairs above Tower-hill, however, was in the extreme till near ten, occaſioned by the crowding of people from the ſhore, who were attracted by the confuſion on the water.

15. The recorder of London, with the ſheriffs and the town-clerk, attended the prince of Wales, at Carleton houſe, with the unanimous vote of thanks, from the common council of London; in preſenting which, the recorder thus addreſſed the prince.

"Sir,

"We have the honour of attending your royal highneſs, by the direction of the corporation of London, with their moſt reſpectful thanks for that princely bounty, which is the ſubject of the reſolution in my hand. I believe I ſpeak truly the ſentiments of theſe gentlemen, as well as my own, in aſſuring your royal highneſs, that no charge could have been given to us, which we ſhould have executed with greater pleaſure; and we think ourſelves peculiarly happy in the honour of preſenting to your royal highneſs, the firſt public teſtimony of that reſpect and veneration from the greateſt city in the world, to which you are ſo eminently entitled from every good citizen, and every truly affectionate ſubject of your royal father. The vote of thanks which we now preſent, we flatter ourſelves, will be the more acceptable, for having paſſed without one diſſenting voice."

The addreſs was then read, to which the prince anſwered, "That he received with much pleaſure this mark of reſpect from the citizens of London, of whoſe loyalty and affection he had now a freſh proof; that he ſhould be ſtudious to cultivate their affection, and deſerve their eſteem."

20. Mrs. Helen Bettenſon, of Sevenoaks, in Kent, an opulent maiden lady, lately deceaſed, among many legacies, has left to the rev. Mr. Hetherington's charity for blind perſons 10,000l. three per cent. conſolidated annuities; to St. Luke's Hoſpital, the ſame; to Bromley College, the ſame; to St. George's Hoſpital, 500l. to Mr. Gregory of Clifford's Inn, 200l; to his wife 100l. and 20l. per annum more, in conſideration of taking care of her Italian greyhound; to all her ſervants 10l. a year for life; to her executors 000l. to erect a monument in Weſtminſter Abbey, with a ſuitable inſcription (which is to be read and approved at a meeting of the Royal Society), for the late Martin Folkes, eſq. who was preſident of the Royal Society; all the reſidue of her eſtate to earl Stanhope, lord Amherſt, and Multon Lambard, eſq. ſhare and ſhare alike, whom ſhe appoints the executors and truſtees of her will.

A letter from Philadelphia, dated the 1ſt of October, ſays, that congreſs, by a reſolution of the 16th of the preceding month, had recommended the ſeveral ſtates to paſs proper laws for preventing the tranſportation of convicted malefactors from foreign countries into the United States.

The ſame letters add, that the aſſembly of Connecticut had paſſed ſuch a law, and another to prevent negro traffic.

A ſociety has lately been inſtituted in New-York for the purpoſe of inveſtigating the Engliſh language, and diſcovering the moſt general principles of pronunciation, ſo as to lay the foundation of an uniform American tongue. To carry into effect this deſign, a correſpondence is to be opened with the univerſities of the ſeveral ſtates, in order to unite, as far as poſſible, the opinion of the literati upon this ſubject: and a pocket dictionary is ſoon to be compiled on the leaſt exceptionable principles, and recommended to the uſe of ſchools in America.

A ſilver mine has lately been diſcovered in Ulſter country, near Eſopus, North America; the vein appears to be five feet by two: Another ſilver mine has alſo been diſcovered in Conway, Maſſachuſetts.

Halifax, Nov. 11. On Saturday the 1ſt of this month, the Academy at Windſor was opened by the biſhop of Nova Scotia; the magiſtrates and principal gentlemen of the county of Hants attended, which added much to the ſolemnity that was obſerved on an occaſion ſo truly pleaſing as the opening of the firſt public ſeminary in this province.

The biſhop began with prayers, and then delivered a Latin oration, in which he pointed out the many advantages the public would derive from the inſtitution, and ſeverally addreſſed the magiſtrates, the tutors, and the ſtudents.

He next read over the regulations that were eſtabliſhed by the gentleman appointed to undertake the general government of the academy. Theſe regulations are well calculated to preſerve order, to enforce diligence in the tutors, and to promote application and improvement in the ſtudents. The buſineſs of the academy being finiſhed, the magiſtrates and gentlemen of the county of Hants preſented an excellent addreſs to the biſhop, to which he returned a ſuitable anſwer. (*See Public Papers.*)

25. Lately the queſtion which has long been debated between the public and the farmers of the poſt-horſe duties, was finally determined in the court of king's bench, before lord Kenyon: when it was adjudged,

"That the hiring a horſe for any diſtance and returning the ſame day, is not ſubject to the duty."

27. This month died, at Mr. Roſs's, baker, in Picadilly, aged 106, Mrs. Jane Roſs, a native of Scotland; ſhe retained her faculties to the laſt hour, and read with eaſe the ſmalleſt print.

29. At a court of common council, Mr. deputy Birch moved, "That an humble addreſs be preſented to his royal highneſs the prince of Wales from this court, immediately upon his appointment to the regency, to condole with him on the melancholy ſituation of our afflicted ſovereign; to congratulate him on his being inveſted with the government of theſe realms during the indiſpoſition of his royal father, by the united wiſdom of the two houſes of parliament; and to expreſs, with the utmoſt duty and reſpect to his royal highneſs, the very high ſenſe which this corporation entertain of the wiſdom, zeal, and integrity of his majeſty's miniſters, to whoſe vigilance and firmneſs this country is indebted for its preſent proſperous and envied ſituation, and for the timely preſervation of its ſacred conſtitution." Mr. Dornford ſeconded the motion.

Mr. Powell reprobated the meaſure as premature. He hoped, when every thing was ſettled and the regency fixed, an addreſs would be produced, in which every voice would unite in promoting a dutiful and loyal one, without engrafting upon it any ſentiment of party.

The principal ſpeakers for the queſtion were, aldermen Sanderſon, Watſon, Hammet, Wilkes, and Le Meſurier; meſſrs. Merry, Pariſh, Box, Dornford, Bailey, and Dixon. Againſt it aldermen Newnham, Skinner, Sawbridge, and Pickett; meſſrs. Goodbehere, Leekey, Lincoln, Thorpe, Slade, and Tutet.

After a long debate, the previous queſtion was put, which was carried by a majority of ſix; there being for it 10 aldermen and 80 commoners, againſt it 9 aldermen and 75 commoners.

Florence, Oct. 4. Our city has lately been witneſs of a very ſingular phænomenon in the hiſtory of literature. A female underwent a public examination before the college of phyſicians and ſurgeons, and, to the ſurprize of every one, proved ſuperior to all expectation.

This extraordinary lady is Mrs. Maria Petruncini Ferretri of Bagnacavallo, who, deſirous of rendering herſelf uſeful to mankind, and eſpecially to many of her own ſex, who often, through perhaps too great modeſty, natural to female education, fall victims to their own delicacy, has applied herſelf with ſuch aſſiduity to the ſtudy of ſurgery, that in the ſpace of a year ſhe has enabled herſelf to add to ſcience, to her ſex, to our city, and to her country, an honour and advantage, of which, in the preſent manner of bringing up female youth in Europe, it will be difficult to hear of another example. *Il Mercurio Italico.*

FEBRUARY.

1. On the 2d of December the houſe of aſſembly of Jamaica voted 1000 guineas, to be laid out in the purchaſe of an elegant ſtar, ornamented with diamonds, to be preſented to prince William Henry, as an humble teſtimony of the very high reſpect and eſteem that iſland entertains for his eminent virtues, and the happineſs they feel in ſeeing him amongſt them; as well as of the grateful ſenſe they have of the particular attention which his royal highneſs

highneſs pays to the duties of a profeſſion, which is the ſupport and defence of the Britiſh empire in general, and of that iſland in particular.

When the committee of the houſe waited on his royal highneſs, to requeſt his acceptance of the ſtar, he received them in the politeſt manner, declared himſelf unconſcious of any merit that could entitle him to ſuch a mark of regard, and aſſured them he ſhould remember, with peculiar pleaſure, their ſentiments of loyalty, and affection for his perſon.

4. A cauſe was tried in the court of king's bench, of great importance to pariſh officers. George Deane hired himſelf to Mr. Beſwick of Macclesfield for eleven months at the rate of 10 guineas. This contract was made by the maſter, with a view to preclude the ſervant from gaining a ſettlement in the pariſh. At the end of eleven months Mr. Beſwick paid Dean his wages, and told him, as he was a good ſervant, he might continue with him; but no agreement was made as to his future wages, for the time he ſhould ſerve. He continued with him near three years without any ſettlement of accounts. Being taken ill, he quitted his maſter's ſervice, who paid for his time at the rate of 4s. a week. The queſtion in this caſe was, whether the latter was only a general hiring, or a continuance of the firſt agreement, and therefore a legal right to a ſettlement? This cauſe was learnedly argued on both ſides. The court was of opinion, that it was a continuance of the original contract, on the ground, that, as the parochial laws were humanely framed for the protection of the poor, they ought not to be defeated by any evaſive artifices.

Richard Blandy, a conſtable, convicted laſt Michaelmas term of ſuffering George Barrington to eſcape out of his cuſtody, was ſentenced by the court of king's bench to be impriſoned twelve months in Newgate. *He died before the expiration of this term. See Vol.* ix. *p.* (273)

Oxford, Feb. 7. On Wedneſday, after fifteen days conteſt, the poll was finally cloſed at Glouceſter, for a member for that city, in the room of ſir Charles Barrow, deceaſed, when the numbers were,

For John Pitt, eſq. 837
Henry Howard, eſq. 836

9. Sailed commodore Cornwallis, with the following ſhips for India, viz. Crown, of 64 guns, capt. Cornwallis; Phœnix, of 36, capt. Byron; Perſeverance, of 36, capt. Smith; Atalanta, of 14, capt. Delgarno; and Ariel, of 14, lieut. Moorſom.

17. His majeſty was this day happily pronounced to be in a ſtate of convaleſcence.

24. When the ambaſſadors of Tippoo Sultan were taking leave at the court of Verſailles, they requeſted to know what mark of friendſhip from their maſter would be moſt ſatisfactory to the king of France: on which the king declared, "That the liberty of any Engliſh officers or ſoldiers who might be ſtill detained priſoners in the ſultan's dominions, and more eſpecially of thoſe who had been priſoners with M. Suffrein, would be the greateſt teſt of regard for his majeſty." A declaration, which reflects honour upon the throne from which it proceeded, and which exalts its author above the rank of kings! the protector of humanity.

It was not, we are informed, the intention of the court of France to make this intereſting requeſt known, till it took a happy effect in India. The Indian ambaſſadors gave the firſt public intimation of the requeſt: M. Suffrein wrote upon the ſame ſubject a very ſtrong letter to

Tippoo,

Tippoo, and orders have been ſent to the French governors in India to uſe every poſſible influence at the court of Tippoo, to carry a point equally intereſting to humanity, and to the police of an enlightened and powerful nation.

It is ſuppoſed that the marquis de la Luzerne the preſent ambaſſador of France in England, and who, in America, had the honour of reſcuing Mr. Aſgill from the cruel ſentence to which he had been doomed, gave the French miniſtry the firſt idea of the requeſt which has been made to Tippoo.

26. The king pronounced perfectly free from complaint.

St James's, Feb. 27. By his majeſty's command the phyſicians report is to be diſcontinued from this day.

MARCH.

1. An order has been made by the lords of his majeſty's moſt honourable privy council, for diſcontinuing the form of prayer for the recovery of his majeſty's health, and for reading, in lieu thereof, a new form of prayer and thankſgiving to Almighty God for the preſent happy ſtate of his majeſty's health. The new form of prayer was read yeſterday throughout the cities of London, Weſtminſter, and elſewhere within the bills of mortality; and is to be read in all churches and chapels throughout England and Wales, and the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed, as ſoon as the miniſters thereof receive the ſame: and an order was alſo made for offering up prayers and thankſgiving for the preſent happy ſtate of his majeſty's health in the ſeveral churches, congregations, or aſſemblies, in that part of Great Britain called Scotland.

3. Yeſterday the appeal of Mr. Bowes againſt the judgment of the eccleſiaſtical court of Doctors Commons in favour of lady Strathmore was finally heard before the court of delegates at Serjeant's Inn Hall, when their lordſhips were pleaſed to affirm the judgment without hearing the counſel in behalf of lady Strathmore, whereby her ladyſhip is reeſtabliſhed in the poſſeſſion of all her eſtates.—The ſentence pronounced was in ſubſtance as follows: "That the ſaid Andrew R. Bowes, being unmindful of his conjugal vow, and not having the fear of God before his eyes, did, on divers days ſpecified in the pleadings in the cauſe, commit the ſeveral acts of cruelty therein mentioned, on the perſon of lady Strathmore; and did alſo, on the ſeveral other days therein ſet forth, commit the crime of adultery. The court did therefore order and decree, that the ſaid Andrew R. Bowes and lady Strathmore be divorced and live ſeparate and apart from each other; but that neither of the parties marry during the natural life of the other of them."

4. Yeſterday the rehearing of the cauſe between lady Strathmore and Mr. Bowes, reſpecting the right of her ladyſhip to the poſſeſſion of her eſtates, which ſhe had made over to herſelf and children, a few days prior to her marriage with Mr. Bowes, came on before the chancellor at Lincoln's Inn Hall.

After Mr. King, counſel for lady Strathmore, had ſpoke in ſupport of the former decree made by Mr. Juſtice Buller, the lord chancellor pronounced judgment; his lordſhip ſaid the queſtion was, whether a deed of ſettlement, dated 10th of January, 1777, executed by lady Strathmore, with a view to a marriage with Mr. Gray, and which exiſted, unknown to Mr. Bowes, on the day he married her ladyſhip, was void upon the principle of a fraud.

His lordſhip ſaid, there was no pre-ence to ſay that this deed was intend-d as a fraud on Mr. Gray, be-auſe it was framed with his concur-ence; nor could it be deemed fraudu-ent with reſpect to Bowes, who had narried her ladyſhip without any pre-ious treaty, but in a very precipi-ate and extraordinary manner.

On the morality of the caſe his ordſhip ſaid, he ſhould make no ob-ervations; in this reſpect the parties ppeared to ſtand upon an equality. Lady Strathmore's object appeared o be marriage in general, without ny reflection as to the character of he man who offered himſelf to her hoice. She had, however, by this eed, entertained a thought of taking are of her eſtates. This was a lu-id interval, and if there was any eaſon in madneſs, his lordſhip con-eived, that this deed was a ſpark of nderſtanding. His lordſhip then aid, he had not the leaſt doubt up-n the caſe. The deed in queſtion vas beyond all controverſy a valid nd ſubſiſting inſtrument, under vhich lady Strathmore had a right o her eſtates. His lordſhip there-ore ordered the decree of Mr. Juſ-ice Buller to be affirmed. *See Vol.* x. *p.* (19).

7. The lord preſident of the coun-il, by order of the cabinet, ſent cir-ular letters to the ſheriffs of the ifferent counties, who were ap-ointed laſt year, acquainting them, hat it is neceſſary, they ſhould con-inue in office during the Lent Aſſi-es; but that new ones would be ppointed before the commencement f the ſummer circuits.

10. After ſeveral adjournments, rom time to time, on account of he happy proſpect of his majeſty's ecovery, both houſes of parliament net; when the lord chancellor, in is majeſty's name, addreſſed them in a ſpeech, announcing farther cauſes for the holding of that parlia-ment, &c. (*See Public Papers.*)

12. At a court of common coun-cil, addreſſes of congratulation were unanimouſly voted to their majeſties on the king's happy recovery. On this occaſion the lord mayor having informed the court, that it was the wiſh of the ſecretary of ſtate, that the addreſs be preſented by a com-mittee, great debates enſued. It was at laſt ſettled, that the ſheriffs ſhould wait upon their majeſties at Kew, to know their pleaſure when it ſhould be preſented.

Whitehall, March 14. On the occaſion of his majeſty's happy reco-very from his late illneſs, which was announced on Tueſday laſt at one o'clock by the diſcharge of the guns in the Park and the Tower, the moſt general and ſplendid illuminations ever remembered were diſplayed throughout London and Weſtminſter in the evening, and the moſt univer-ſal and heartfelt joy was manifeſted by all ranks of his majeſty's ſubjects.

18. At a court of common coun-cil, the ſheriffs reported to the court, that his majeſty had appointed the next day, at one o'clock, to receive at Kew the addreſs from the hands of the lord mayor and ſheriffs; ſay-ing, that as the national buſineſs ſo preſſed upon him, he could not re-ceive the whole court in the accuſtom-ed manner. The court ſeemed to be unanimouſly of opinion to com-ply with the mode his majeſty had preſcribed. And a reſolution paſſed, accordingly, to that effect. Upon which Mr. alderman Newnham ob-ſerved, that as the city of London had on this occaſion conſented to de-part from their ancient mode of pre-ſenting their addreſſes to the king on the throne by the whole court, he thought they ſhould paſs a reſolution,

that

that it might remain on record, that they had not in this inſtance given up their ancient right. He then read a motion, as follows—"That it is the inherent and acknowledged right and privilege of this court to be received by his majeſty upon the throne; but they have in compliance with his majeſty's wiſhes, conveyed by the ſheriffs, waved the ſame without prejudice to their rights."—This paſſed unanimouſly.

19. The lord mayor and the two ſheriffs, in their carriages, went in a private manner to Kew, where they preſented their addreſſes to their majeſties, ſeparately.

The king and queen received them in the moſt affable manner, and gave them anſwers expreſſing their ſenſe of the affection and loyalty of the city of London.

20. Laſt Friday the workmen, in new paving the choir of St. George's Chapel, at Windſor, diſcovered a decay in the ſtones which cloſed up the entrance into the vault where Edward IV. had been depoſited. Two of the canons and the ſurveyor entering the vault, viewed the royal body incloſed in a leaden and a wooden coffin, reduced to a ſkeleton which meaſured ſix feet three inches, the ſkull reclined to the left or north ſide, with a quantity of long brown hair which had fallen off it, but no traces of envelope or cere-cloth, nor any rings or other inſignia. A liquor covered the bottom of the inner coffin to the depth of about four inches, which, on examination, was found to be only the moiſture which had drained from the body. On the king's coffin lay another of wood, only much decayed, which contained the ſkeleton of a woman; who from the marks of age about the ſkull, was ſuppoſed to be that of his queen, lady Elizabeth Grey, who died three years after him in confinement at Bermondſey Abbey, and was probably buried with leſs pomp. The body of his fifth daughter Mary, who died the year before him and was the only perſon of his family buried at Windſor, was not in this vault, which, from various circumſtances, appeared to have been opened and plundered at ſome former period. On the walls of the vault was written in chalk, in abbreviated characters of the time, Edward or Edwardus IV. and ſeveral names of workmen or aſſiſtants at the funeral.

Edward IV. died April 9, 1482, and was buried the 18th following in this chapel, the foundation of which he himſelf had laid.

21. Laſt night a fire broke out at Mr. Heath's in Leiceſter-ſtreet, which entirely conſumed the ſame, damaged the hotel next door, and burnt backwards to Princes-ſtreet. In the confuſion, a child of Mr. Heath's had been left in a cradle; and being ſurrounded by the flames cried out loud enough to be heard. Mr. Heath ran to its relief, and with difficulty, and not without being ſcorched in ſeveral places, reſcued it. This ingenious artiſt, it is ſaid, has loſt by this unfortunate accident property in prints, plates, &c. to the value of 2000l. The great picture of the riots in London, in 1780, and the ſmall one of the death of major Pierſon, both the property of Mr. alderman Boydell, were conſumed: but Mr. Heath was lucky enough to ſave the plates of them on which he has been employed for years.

26. A drawing room this day at St. James's which was the moſt brilliant and numerous ever ſeen, being the firſt ſince the king's indiſpoſition. His majeſty came to town in the morning on horſeback, and alighted at Buckingham-houſe, where he ſaw the queen and princeſſes in their

dreſſes before they went to St. James's, and about two o'clock returned to Kew-houſe in his traveling poſt-chaiſe. The queen's dreſs was ſuperb beyond all former precedent and was enriched by a diſplay of diamonds of immenſe value. She had the words, 'Long live the king,' in diamonds — and the ſame motto, in gold letters, on a white ſattin ribband, was on the cap of almoſt every lady. The dreſſes were almoſt uniformly white ſattin with crape draperies and trains embroidered and fringed.

30. This evening Mrs. Maxwell, of Harley-ſtreet, Cavendiſh-ſquare, was ſitting alone by the drawing-room fire, in expectation of ſome company ſhe had engaged, when the poker fell on her apron and ſet fire to it. Alarmed at the accident, ſhe flew toward the ſtair-caſe, ſcreaming for aſſiſtance: being met by the butler, he endeavoured to extinguiſh the flames, which had now communicated to every part of her dreſs; his efforts, however, were ineffectual; for though he finally extinguiſhed the flames, after ſuſtaining conſiderable injury himſelf, the unfortunate lady was ſo much burnt, that ſhe expired the next morning.

31. Advice is received this month, by the Prince of Wales tranſport, capt. Moore, juſt returned from New South Wales, that the fleet under commodore Phillip, which ſailed from Portſmouth on the 13th of May 1787, had anchored in Botany Bay on the 20th of January 1788. This fleet, which conſiſted of the Sirius and Supply frigates, ſix tranſports, and three victuallers, had on board a military force amounting to 212 men, officers included; and the convicts they carried were 561 men, 192 women, and 18 children. Of the marines only one was loſt, and of the convicts only twenty-four died in the paſſage.

This month died at Dunwich, Suffolk, aged 110, Samuel Rook Worrell, a fiſherman; he followed his employment till within eleven years of his death.— At Huderſdorf in Germany, aged 104, Philip Seithner, a common ſoldier: he had ſerved many campaigns againſt the Turks, and retained his faculties till the hour of his death.—At Liſbon, a friar, of the convent of St. Francis, died in his perfect ſenſes at 102 years old; and Donna Margarita Guiacon left this world in her 104th year: ſhe leaves a ſiſter behind who is 97.

APRIL.

1. Yeſterday 360l. was paid into the exchequer for the uſe of the public, in conſequence of the following note received by the chancellor of the exchequer.

"Sir,

"You will herewith receive bank notes to the amount of 360l. which is the property of the nation, and which, as an honeſt man, you will be ſo juſt as to apply to the uſe of the ſtate in ſuch manner, that the nation may not ſuffer by its having been detained from the public treaſury. You are implored to do this for the eaſe of conſcience to an honeſt man."

3. A proclamation iſſued for a day of general thankſgiving, on the 23d of April, for his majeſty's happy recovery.

7. Came on the election of the governor and deputy-governor of the bank of England for the year enſuing, when Mark Weyland, eſq. was choſen governor, and Samuel Boſanquet, eſq. deputy-governor; and yeſterday came on the election of 24 directors, when the following gentlemen were choſen:

S. Beach-

S. Beachcroft, T. Boddington, R. Clay, B. Coney, W. Cooke, E. Darell, T. Dea, W. Ewer, D. Giles, J. Harriſon, T. S. Jackſon, Job Matthew, R. Neave, Joſ. Nutt, I. Oſborne, E. Payne, G. Peters, C. Puller, T. Raikes, G. Thornton, S. Thornton, J. Witmore, jun. B. Winthrop, M. Yeldham, eſqrs.

The following is a ſtate of the ballot:

For the directors, or houſe liſt 406
For Mr. alderman Pickett's liſt 119

Majority for the directors 287

The ſame day a common hall was held at Guildhall, when it was agreed to preſent ſeparate addreſſes of congratulation to their majeſties on the king's recovery.

13. Mr. Bacon's famous caſt in bronze of the river Thames perſonified, and ſurrounded with attributes, was erected toward the north angle of Somerſet-ſquare. The figure meaſures upwards of eight feet; and is nearly a ton and a half in weight: under the right arm is an antique urn, behind which a cornucopia extends to the left ſide.

14. They write from Philadelphia, that a farmer Sunbury, on the Suſquehana, has lately made two barrels of ſweet oil (equal to the preſent olive oil) out of hickory nuts, by ſimple expreſſion. One half of the ſmalleſt ſpecies of theſe nuts, viz. the ſhell-bark, yielded by an experiment 30 drops of oil. The oil obtained from theſe nuts has been uſed in diet, and from the want of oil of an inferior quality has been burnt in lamps.

15. Her Majeſty, accompanied by the princeſſes Auguſta and Elizabeth, went to Covent-garden theatre. On her entering the box, the theatre thundered applauſe. Her majeſty ſenſibly felt the congratulations. When ſeated, the ordinary curtain was drawn up, and diſcovered a ſplendid drop-cloth, diſplaying his majeſty's arms ſuperbly emblazoned, having a ſcroll over it, with the words *Long live the king*, and another underneath, *May the king live for ever*. Two cherubs ſupported the lower ſcroll, waving wreaths of laurel over it. The whole painting was decorated with a rich foliage of roſes and myrtle ſurrounding it. Its unexpected diſplay added conſiderably to the effect.

The principal ſingers belonging to the theatre, then came forwards, who were joined in the ſong of *God ſave the king* by the whole audience, and encored a firſt, ſecond, and third time; with which her majeſty was ſo impreſſed, that ſhe ſhed tears of joy.

20. Lord Petre, accompanied by ſir Henry Englefield and Mr. Farmer, had a conference with the miniſter at his houſe in Downing-ſtreet, concerning the buſineſs which has been ſome time in agitation to be brought before parliament, for eaſing the burthen of the Engliſh catholics by taking off the double land-tax, &c. *See Vol.* ix. *p.* (19).

21. It is no leſs extraordinary than true, that while the Eaſt India company have been annually exporting ſilver to China, for want of other commodities with which to purchaſe teas, the Dutch have for years paſt been carrying on a very lucrative trade in tin from the iſland of Sumatra, which finds an univerſal conſumption in every part of China. An ingenious gentleman, who was lately in the company's ſervice, has explained this circumſtance to the court of directors and the lords of the treaſury, who have turned ſo attentive an ear to him,

that

that the company have already ſent off 50 tons of tin by the ſhips of the preſent ſeaſon.

The prince of Wales was among the firſt to patronize the newly diſcovered trade in tin to China, which bids fair to employ ten thouſand workmen, who, with their families, were lately in want of bread.

Whitehall, April 25. Thurſday laſt being appointed by his majeſty's proclamation to be obſerved as a day of general thankſgiving to Almighty God for the ſignal interpoſition of his good providence, in removing from his majeſty the late illneſs with which he had been afflicted, his majeſty was pleaſed, for the greater ſolemnity of the day, to go to the cathedral church of St. Paul, accompanied by the queen, their royal highneſſes the prince of Wales, the duke of York, the princeſs royal, the princeſs Auguſta, the princeſs Elizabeth, the duke of Glouceſter, and the duke of Cumberland, and his highneſs prince William; and attended by both houſes of parliament, the great officers of ſtate, the judges, and other public officers, to return thanks to God for his great mercies and bleſſings.

The proceſſion was begun at eight o'clock in the morning by the houſe of commons, in their coaches, followed by their ſpeaker, in his ſtate-coach. Next came the maſters in chancery, the judges, and after them the peers, in the order of precedency, as they were marſhalled by the officers of arms at Weſtminſter, the youngeſt baron going firſt, and the lord chancellor, in his ſtate coach, cloſing this part of the proceſſion. Such of the peers as were knights wore the collars of their reſpective orders.

Afterward came the royal family, in order of precedency, with their attendants, eſcorted by parties of the royal regiment of horſe-guards.

Their majeſties ſet out from the queen's palace ſoon after ten o'clock, in a coach drawn by eight cream-coloured horſes, (in which were alſo two of the ladies of her majeſty's bed-chamber) followed by their royal highneſſes the princeſſes, and proceeded through the gate at the Stable-yard, along Pall-mall, and through the Strand, amid the loyal acclamations of a prodigious concourſe of people.

The ſtreets were lined, as far as Temple-bar, by the brigade of foot-guards, the grenadier companies of which were poſted in St. Paul's church, and in the church-yard, and patrolled by parties of the royal regiment of horſe guards. The avenues into the ſtreets through which the proceſſion paſſed were guarded by the queen's light dragoons. From Temple-bar to the church the ſtreets were lined by the artillery company and the miltia of the city; the peace officers attending both within and without the city, to preſerve order.

At Temple-bar his majeſty was met by the lord mayor in a gown of crimſon velvet, by the ſheriffs in their ſcarlet gowns, and a deputation from the aldermen and common-council (being all on horſe-back), when the lord mayor ſurrendered the city ſword to his majeſty, who having returned it to him, he carried it bare-headed before the king to St. Paul's.

His majeſty being come to St. Paul's was met at the weſt door by the peers, the biſhop of London, the dean of St. Paul's (biſhop of Lincoln), the canons reſidentary, and the kings and other officers of arms, the band of gentlemen penſioners,

ſioners and the yeomen of the guard attending.

The ſword of ſtate was carried before his majeſty by the marquis of Stafford into the choir, where the king and queen placed themſelves under a canopy of ſtate, near the weſt end, oppoſite to the altar.

The peers had their ſeats in the area, as a houſe of lords, and the commons in the ſtalls. The upper galleries were allotted to the ladies of her majeſty's bedchamber the maids of honour, and ſuch other ladies of diſtinction as attended on this occaſion. The foreign miniſters were placed in the two lower galleries, next to the throne; and the lord mayor and aldermen in the lower galleries near the altar.

The prayers and litany were read and chanted by the minor canons. The *Te Deum* and anthems compoſed for the occaſion were ſung by the choir, who were placed in the organ-loft, and were joined in the chorus, as alſo in the Pſalms, by the charity children, in number about ſix thouſand, who were aſſembled there previous to their majeſties arrival. The communion ſervice was read by the dean and reſidentaries, and the ſermon preached by the lord biſhop of London.

Divine ſervice being ended, their majeſties returned with the ſame ſtate to the queen's palace at about half an hour after three o'clock. The guns in the Tower and in the Park were fired three times, firſt upon the king's ſetting out, ſecondly at the ſinging of *Te Deum*, and thirdly upon his majeſty's return; after which the brigade of foot guards fired a *Feu de Joie* in St. James's Park, being drawn up in the front of the queen's palace.

The public demonſtrations of joy and loyalty by the inhabitants of London and Weſtminſter, on the occaſion of his majeſty's firſt appearance in public ſince his happy recovery, exceeded all expreſſion; and yeſterday evening the illuminations in all parts of this metropolis ſurpaſſed in ſplendor and magnificence all former exhibitions. *London Gazette.*

25. On Friday, the day after the general thankſgiving, the moſt univerſal and magnificent illuminations took place in the metropolis. The devices, in many parts, expreſſive of unbounded loyalty, were inconceivably various and beautiful.

27. On Wedneſday, at two in the afternoon, an alarming fire was diſcovered in that beautiful wood, known by the name of Brayton Barff, within a mile of Selby, in Yorkſhire, occaſioned by the negligence of a farmer and his ſervants in that neighbourhood, who were burning weeds at the foot of the wood. The wind being high, the flames communicated to the leaves and underwood, and in leſs than an hour the whole was in a blaze, which raged ſo furiouſly, that notwithſtanding the water engines belonging to Selby were played for ſome time, and every other aſſiſtance that could be procured, made uſe of, before twelve the ſame evening the whole was unfortunately conſumed; and what is very ſhocking, many that were kind enough in aſſiſting to get the fire under, have ever ſince been dangerouſly ill, occaſioned by the intenſe heat, and being afterwards expoſed to the cold. The trees in the above wood were ſuppoſed to be worth upward of 5000l.

30. This month died at Galſwhey, near Rippon, Yorkſhire, in his 109th year, Wm. Preſt, who worked as a labourer at Studley-park till within theſe ten years. He has left a widow aud eight children. — At Cronſtadt, aged 111, Marie de Chapelet; ſhe was ſiſter to M.

de

Reſen, brigadier in the Ruſſian rvice, into which he entered under e reign of Peter the Great, and ed lately at the age of 101 years. hey preſerved their faculties even the laſt moments of their lives.

MAY.

1. On Wedneſday, the Andro-eda frigate, captain prince Wil-ım Henry, arived at Portſmouth, 21 days from Halifax.

4. Mr. alderman Boydell opened s Shakeſpeare gallery, in Pall-mall, r public inſpection. The exqui-e beauties of the greateſt drama-c poet that ever exiſted, are here nbodied with a ſkill and force of xpreſſion, in many inſtances, with hich he himſelf would certainly ave been delighted.

The artiſts who contribute to this ndertaking are the firſt in the ountry; but thoſe whoſe labours and pre-eminent are, ſir Joſhua eynolds, Peters, Opie, Weſt, Fu-li, Wright, Hamilton, Northcote, Wheatley, and Banks.

The gallery is intended to con-ſt of three large rooms; only two f them are yet open. A very fine odel of an alto relievo, to be laced in the front of the building by Mr. Banks, is exhibited in the firſt oom. It repreſents Shakeſpeare eated on a rock, with Poetry on is right hand preſenting him with wreath of bays, while ſhe cele-rates his praiſe on her lyre. Her ead is ornamented with a double aſk, to ſhew that ſhe has beſtowed he double power of tragedy and omedy on her favourite ſon. On is left hand is Painting, repreſent-d as addreſſing the ſpectator with ne hand extended toward Shak-ſpeare's breaſt, pointing him out as he proper model for her pencil. The ard leans his left hand on her ſhoul-er, as if accepting her aſſiſtance.

6. On the 10th of March, a lady had the misfortune at Rome to be ſeverely burnt, by her clothes tak-ing fire. To give eaſe to the tor-ture ſhe felt, when the flames were extinguiſhed, a domeſtic had re-courſe to ſome honey that was at hand, which not only aſſuaged the pain, but in nine days accompliſhed a cure.

Whitehall, May 9. The king has been pleaſed to grant to the right hon. James lord Malmeſbury, and his iſſue, his royal licence and au-thority, in purſuance of the royal permiſſion of the king of Pruſſia, under his ſignet and ſign manual, bearing date the 21ſt day of October laſt, to add to the arms of his fa-mily the Black Eagle of Pruſſia, either quarterly, or as one of his ſupporters, as a public mark of his Pruſſian majeſty's eſteem and re-gard, and as a memorial of the ſa-tisfaction he derived from his con-duct, in the character of his majeſ-ty's ambaſſador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to the ſtates gene-ral of the United Provinces, during the late revolution in that country, as well as from his ſervices in ce menting the union between the two crowns, by the treaty lately ſigned at Loo (ſuch arms being firſt duly exemplified according to the laws of arms.) And the king has been farther pleaſed to grant to the ſaid James lord Malmeſbury his royal licence and authority, in compli-ance with the requeſt of the prince of Orange, by letter written with his own hand, dated the 8th of Oc-tober laſt, to take and uſe the mot-to of his ſerene highneſs's houſe, *Je maintiendrai*, in commemoration of the above mentioned revolution: and his majeſty has alſo been pleaſed to order that this his conceſſion and de-claration be regiſtered in his college of arms.

11. The ſtatue of his majeſty in bronze, was placed on a pedeſtal in the north angle of Somerſet-place. *See p.* (14).

19. The queen's birth-day, not having been obſerved as uſual, in January, was celebrated this day (the real anniverſary) at Windſor.

22. James Robinſon, William Robinſon, and Richard Brooke, eſquires, juſtices of the peace for the Tower hamlets, were brought up for judgment, for diſcharging Charles Banniſter, William Palmer, &c. who had been committed as rogues and vagabonds, for acting plays, &c. at the Royalty Theatre, and impriſoned 14 days. Mr. Juſtice Aſhhurſt pronounced the ſentence of the court, which was, that each of the defendants ſhould pay a fine of 100l. and be impriſoned till it was paid.

25. The court of King's Bench have very humanely determined, that in binding out pariſh apprentices it ſhall be done not only with the *aſſent*, but in the *preſence of two juſtices of the peace*, agreeable to the act of 43d Eliz. The court obſerved, that the duty of magiſtrates in binding poor children apprentices, was of a very ſerious and ſolemn nature. In the eye of the law, they were their guardians and protectors, as they had no body elſe to provide for them. The act of putting them out apprentices, was therefore doubtleſs a judicial act, requiring the *concurrent attention and ſober deliberation of both the magiſtrates, who ought to be preſent for that purpoſe*. The court were impelled by their feelings, and a due concern for the future welfare of poor children, to enforce this duty on the part of juſtices, otherwiſe they might conceive it to be of little conſequence, and pay only ſlight attention to that which was of great importance to ſociety.

27. A diſpute lately happene between the duke of York, an colonel Lenox (nephew and heir t the duke of Richmond) which ter minated yeſterday in a duel. Thi diſpute originated in an obſervatio of his royal highneſs, namely, tha 'colonel Lenox had heard word ſpoken to him at the club at Dau bigny's, to which no gentlema ought to have ſubmitted.' Thi obſervation being reported to th colonel, he took the opportunity while his royal highneſs was on th parade, to addreſs him, deſiring t know, what were the words whic he had ſubmitted to hear, and b whom they were ſpoken. To thi his royal highneſs gave no other an ſwer then, than by ordering the co lonel to his poſt. The parade be ing over, his royal highneſs wen into the orderly room, and ſend ing for the colonel, intimated t him, in the preſence of all the of ficers, that he deſired to derive n protection from his rank as a prince and his ſtation as commanding of ficer; but that, when not on duty, he wore a brown coat, and was ready, as a private gentleman, to give the colonel ſatisfaction. After this declaration, colonel Lenox wrote a circular letter to every member of the club at Daubigny's, requeſting to know whether any ſuch words had been uſed to him, and appointing laſt Monday for an anſwer from each, their ſilence to be conſidered as a declaration that no ſuch words could be recollected. On the expiration of the term limited for an anſwer to his circular letter, the colonel ſent a written meſſage to his royal highneſs, to this purport: "That not being able to recollect any occaſion on which words had been ſpoken to him at Daubigny's to which a gentleman ought not to ſubmit, he had taken the ſtep which appeared to him the moſt likely to gain

gain information of the words to which his royal highneſs had alluded, and of the perſon who had uſed them; that none of the members of the Club had given him information of any ſuch inſult being in their knowledge; and therefore he expected, in juſtice to his character, that his royal highneſs ſhould contradict the report as publicly as he had aſſerted it." This letter was delivered to his royal highneſs on Monday by the earl of Winchelſea; when the anſwer returned not proving ſatisfactory, a meſſage was ſent to his royal highneſs deſiring a meeting, and the time and place were ſettled that evening.

To preclude the unfounded repreſentations which may be propagated reſpecting this duel, the ſeconds thought it neceſſary to give the following authenticated account.

"In conſequence of a diſpute already known to the public, his royal highneſs the duke of York, attended by lord Rawdon, and lieutenant-colonel Lenox, accompanied by the earl of Winchelſea, met at Wimbledon common. The ground was meaſured at twelve paces, and both parties were to fire upon a ſignal agreed upon. The ſignal being given, lieutenant-colonel Lenox fired, and the ball grazed his royal highneſs's curl. The duke of York did not fire. Lord Rawdon then interfered, and ſaid, "that he thought enough had been done." Lieutenant-colonel Lenox obſerved, "that his royal highneſs had not fired." Lord Rawdon ſaid, "It was not the duke's intention to fire; his royal highneſs had come out upon lieutenant-colonel Lenox's deſire, to give him ſatisfaction, and had no animoſity againſt him." Lieutenant-colonel Lenox preſſed that the duke of York ſhould fire, which was declined, upon a repetition of the reaſon. Lord Winchelſea then went up to the duke of York, and expreſſed his hope, "That his royal highneſs could have no objection to ſay, he conſidered lieut. col. Lenox as a man of honour and courage." His royal highneſs replied, "That he ſhould ſay nothing; he had come out to give lieut. col. Lenox ſatisfaction, and did not mean to fire at him; if lieut. col. Lenox was not ſatisfied, he might fire again. Lieut col. Lenox ſaid, "he could not poſſibly fire again at the duke, as his royal highneſs did not mean to fire at him." On this both parties left the ground. The ſeconds think it proper to add, that both parties behaved with the moſt perfect coolneſs and intrepidity.

(Signed) WINCHELSEA.
RAWDON.

30. A general meeting of the ſubſcribers to the aſſociation for promoting the diſcovery of the interior parts of Africa, was held at the St. Alban's tavern, when an account of the proceedings of the committee during the paſt year, and of the intereſting intelligence which had been received in the courſe of it, particularly from the late Mr. Ledyard, was ſubmitted to their conſideration. By this intelligence, every doubt is removed of the practicability of the object for which the ſociety was inſtituted; and as ſeveral perſons have offered themſelves as candidates to ſucceed the late Mr. Ledyard in the ſervice of the aſſociation, there is reaſon to ſuppoſe, that the knowledge already obtained will ſoon be followed by more extenſive diſcoveries. The committee of the former year, conſiſting of lord Rawdon, the biſhop of Landaff, ſir Joſeph Banks, Mr. Beaufoy, and Mr. Stuart, were rechoſen.—The late Mr. Ledyard

had proceeded in the ſervice of the ſociety as far as Grand Cairo, had made an agreement with the conductor of a caravan, and was on the point of taking his departure for Sennaare, when he was ſeized with an illneſs which terminated in his death.

31. This month died Mr. Coward, of Ariſide caſtle, in Weſtmoreland. He was 116 years old, and able to read without ſpectacles.

JUNE.

1. On Thurſday col. Lenox made a requiſition to the duke of York, as colonel of the Coldſtream regiment, that his royal highneſs would permit a call of the officers of that corps, in order that certain propoſitions, touching his conduct and ſituation, might be ſubmitted to their conſideration. His royal highneſs informed the friend of Mr. Lenox, "that he could not poſſibly oppoſe any deſign which might tend to relieve Mr. Lenox from his preſent embarraſſment." The meeting of this military convention was held yeſterday at the orderly-room at two o'clock; and after a conſiderable deliberation, the meeting adjourned over to this day at one; when, after a conſiderable diſcuſſion, the convention came to the following reſolution: "It is the opinion of the Coldſtream regiment, that, *ſubſequent* to the 15th of May, the day of the meeting at the orderly-room, lieutenant-colonel Lenox has behaved with courage, but, from the peculiar difficulty of his ſituation, not with judgment."—*Col. Lenox, ſoon after, exchanged his company in the duke of York's regiment, for the commiſſion of lieutenant-colonel in the 35th regiment of foot.* *See p.* (18).

2. The aſſembly of Jamaica has made an act to give the overſeers twenty ſhillings a-head for every child they raiſe to twelve months old in any of the plantations.

3. The king of Pruſſia, to encourage induſtry and arts, has given orders for a news-paper to be publiſhed monthly, and to be diſtributed *gratis* to the *peaſants* through Sileſia, &c. and has further enjoined, that in each diſtrict every ſchoolmaſter ſhall read and explain the contents of the paper to ſuch of his neighbours as cannot themſelves read. It is to contain a journal of the progreſs of agriculture throughout his dominions; preſcriptions for the cure of various diſorders incident to mankind, cattle, ſheep, dogs, &c. &c.

4. His majeſty's birth-day kept, as uſual, at St. James's; but his majeſty was not preſent. The court was uncommonly numerous and ſplendid.

9. His majeſty went to the houſe of peers, the firſt time ſince his happy recovery, in order to ſignify to the commons, at the bar of that houſe, his royal approbation of Mr. Addington, to be their ſpeaker.

10. Yeſterday, a very curious experiment was tried, that of proving how far an entire copper veſſel would anſwer the purpoſe of ſailing. Mr. Williams, a joint-proprietor of the great copper mines, was the projector; and a very numerous party attended the experiment; among whom were lord Mount Edgecumbe, ſir John Borlaſe Warren, &c.

The veſſel was launched at Deptford, and promiſes to anſwer every purpoſe for which it was deſigned.

17. A dreadful fire broke out, at the king's theatre, in the Hay-market. The fire began in that part of the houſe, above the ſtage, which is called the fly. They were rehearſing a ballet below; and the firſt

first notice they had of the mischief was the sparks falling upon their heads. No persons were above at the time. These circumstances necessarily give rise to suspicions of a premeditated design on the part of some incendiary. Five houses in Market-lane are entirely destroyed, as are the stables of the White-horse inn. Mr. Patence's house in Union-court, and the Globe public-house, the corner of Pall-mall, are very much damaged.

Mr. Angelo's fencing-room, and the fine double stair-case to the galleries, only remain of the immense fabric.

18. This evening, about a quarter before twelve, the theatre at Manchester was discovered to be on fire. So rapid was the flames, that the whole building was entirely burnt to the ground in the space of one hour.

19. On Wednesday, a general half-yearly court of proprietors was held at the East India-house, Leadenhall-street, when the dividend for the half-year ending Midsummer, 1789, was fixed at 8*l.* per cent.

Windsor, June 25. This morning, at a little after seven o'clock, their majesties and their royal highnesses the princess royal, princess Augusta, and princess Elizabeth, set out for his royal highness the duke of Gloucester's lodge at Lyndhurst.

Lyndhurst, June 25. Their majesties and their royal highnesses the princess royal, princess Augusta and princess Elizabeth, arrived here this afternoon, soon after three o'clock, in perfect health. —*Lond. Gaz.*

27. Captain M'Kenzie, who was convicted some time ago of shooting a man from the mouth of a cannon, on the coast of Africa, (but pardoned) was lately killed in a duel, by a capt. Lee, at Naples. *See vol.* vi. *p.* (79.)

30. John William Rose, esq. elected recorder of London, in the room of Mr. Adair, who had resigned, and his salary ordered to be 600*l.* a year. Thanks were voted to the late recorder for his able and upright conduct in that office, with the freedom of the city in a gold box of 100 guineas value; and he was ordered to be retained, with the attorney and solicitor-general, in all causes in which the city was concerned. William Fasson, esq. pleaded his being an officer of the Worcestershire militia, and was excused serving the office of sheriff, and Joseph Ballard, esq. paid his fine, which was 60*l.* he having stood the election at the common hall.

Oxford, June 30. About four o'clock in the morning, an uncommon shock, attended with a violent rushing noise, was felt at St. Mary Magdalen's college, and on the other side of the water, occasioned, as it afterwards appeared, by the falling of the venerable oak which stood at the entrance into the Water-walk, and had for many ages, by its magnitude and antiquity, attracted the admiration of strangers. Its dimensions were as follows:

In girth — 21 feet 9 inches.
Height — — 71 feet 8 inches.
Cubic contents 754 feet.

The capacious trunk, for more than 9 feet from the ground, was reduced to a perfect shell; but upwards the tree seemed to be in full vigour of vegetation, though it had long been kept from falling by two or three roots, scarcely so large as a two-inch cable, and those at last reduced to dust. With such slender support, it is wonderful that it should so long have repelled the storms which at different times have torn up huge elms in the adjacent grove, many generations of which it has seen pass away. Dr. Stuke-

ley, in 1724, ſpeaking, in his Itinerarium Curioſum, of Magdalen college, ſays, "The old oak is yet left, nigh which he [the founder] ordered his college to be built." Now the college was founded in 1458; and we muſt conclude that a tree had ſomething peculiar in its ſize or its age, to make it an object of attraction on ſuch an occaſion. The founder directed the boundary on the north to be near the *great oak*. But they, who are at all acquainted with our ancient foreſts, will not think it incredible, that an oak, of ſufficient importance to attract William Waynflete's attention, ſhould boaſt of receiving in its green old age a viſit from George the Third. Its antiquity has indeed been aſcertained with tolerable accuracy, by the uſual method of counting the number of circular lines in the grain, each of which is a mark of annual growth in all ſpecies of timber. Hence it appears, that this oak has been increaſing for upwards of ſix centuries.

Philadelphia, April 22. Monday his excellency George Waſhington, eſq. the preſident elect of the United States, arrived in this city about one o'clock, accompanied by the preſident of the ſtate, governor St. Clair, the ſpeaker of the aſſembly, the chief-juſtice, the hon. Mr. Read, the attorney-general, and ſecretary Thompſon, the two city troops of horſe, the county troop, a detachment of artillery, a body of light infantry, and a numerous concourſe of citizens on horſeback and foot.

His excellency rode on horſeback in front of the proceſſion. The number of ſpectators who filled the doors, windows, and ſtreets, which he paſſed, was greater than on any other occaſion we ever remember. The bells were rung through the day and night, and a *feu de joye* was fired as he moved down Market and Second-ſtreets to the City Tavern.

The joy of the whole city upon this auguſt ſpectacle cannot eaſily be deſcribed. Every countenance ſeemed to ſay, "Long, long live George Waſhington, the Father of the People!" At three o'clock his excellency ſat down to an elegant entertainment of 250 covers at the City Tavern, prepared for him by the citizens of Philadelphia. A band of muſic played during the entertainment, and a diſcharge of artillery took place at every toaſt, among which was, "The ſtate of Virginia." The ſhip Alliance, and a Spaniſh merchant ſhip, were handſomely decorated with colours of different nations. His excellency, having travelled with great expedition from Mount Vernon, proceeded yeſterday morning for New York.

JULY.

1. On the 26th ult. another court martial [*See Vol.* v. *p.* (82) *and* (90)] was held at the horſe-guards, on col. Debbieg, at the proſecution of the duke of Richmond. The charges preferred againſt the colonel were three: 1. An indignity to his grace, as his ſuperior officer, in writing and ſending a letter to his grace, dated March 16, the terms of which were inſulting, and unbecoming an officer. 2. Cauſing the ſaid letter to be publiſhed in a morning paper on the 3d of June laſt, thereby ſpreading the ſaid inſult. And, 3. expoſing the weakneſs of his country, he having been employed as a military officer in its defence.

The duke ſpoke to each of theſe heads, and exhibited the papers. But the colonel ſaved the court the trouble of proofs, by acknowledging the writing, and authorizing the publication of the ſaid papers.

He deſired to be indulged ſome time

time to make his defence, and wiſhed to have a copy of the comments of his accuſer. The court complied, and adjourned to the 29th, when the colonel read his defence to the charges. He went at ſome length into the circumſtance of the duty of every Britiſh officer to ſuggeſt what he thought eſſential to the ſafety of his country: that he had done his utmoſt to draw the attention of the maſter-general of the ordnance to the true ſyſtem of defence for this iſland; and, not being able to engage the notice of the noble duke by private communication, he had publiſhed his letter.—He offered the plan which he had ſuggeſted for the defence of the harbours to the court; but, on conſideration, they reſolved that the paper was not proper to be received.

The colonel declined calling witneſſes, and the court was cleared while the ſentence was deliberating.

SENTENCE.

"Upon due conſideration of the whole matter, the ſenſe of each member having been taken upon the ſeveral articles diſtinctly, the court martial is of opinion, that the ſaid col. Hugh Debbieg is guilty of each of the three articles of charge exhibited againſt him; and doth adjudge, that he be ſuſpended from pay and duty, as colonel of the corps of royal engineers, for the ſpace of ſix calendar months."

His majeſty, after expreſſing his concern that an officer of col. Debbieg's rank and experience ſhould, a ſecond time, have loſt ſight of diſcipline and ſubordination, adverted to the lenity of the former ſentence, which his majeſty was pleaſed graciouſly to attribute to the opinion entertained by the court martial of col. Debbieg's former ſervices and profeſſional merit. His majeſty wiſhed, upon the ſame ground, to have found an opening for the interpoſition of his royal clemency; but, in ſupport of good order, and for forcing a good obſervance of that deference and reſpect which officers of an inferior degree owe at all times to thoſe which are ſuperior to them in rank and command, his majeſty has thought it neceſſary to confirm the ſentence of the court martial, and to direct that the ſame, together with his majeſty's confirmation thereof, be notified in public order.

By his majeſty's command,
(Signed) WM. FAWCET, Adj. Gen.

—His majeſty has been pleaſed not only to grant his moſt gracious pardon to Mr. David Wardrope, late ſurgeon of the Phaeton frigate; but alſo, by an order in council, to direct, that he may be reſtored to his former rank on the liſt of ſurgeons, in the royal navy.—He had been tried by a court martial in the Mediterranean, for ſtriking a lieutenant, and ſent home under ſentence of death; but it appeared alſo, that he was ſubject to occaſional fits of inſanity, in conſequence of a wound in his head, received in the ſervice.

Weymouth. July 1. Their majeſties and their royal highneſſes the princeſs royal, princeſs Auguſta, and princeſs Elizabeth, arrived at Glouceſter houſe, in perfect health, at a little after four o'clock yeſterday afternoon. The cannon at Portland caſtle were ſoon after fired, which were anſwered by his majeſty's ſhips in the roads, and by a royal ſalute from the battery on ſhore; and in the evening the whole town was very ſplendidly illuminated.

This day the mayor and corporation waited on their majeſties with an addreſs, which was received very graciouſly.

2. A duel took place in a field near the Uxbridge Road, between lieutenant colonel Lenox, and Theo-

philus Swift, esq. on account of some reflections on the former, in a pamphlet, entitled "Letter to the King, in which the conduct of Mr. Lenox, and the minister, in the affair with his royal highness the duke of York, is fully considered, by Theophilus Swift, esq."—It being agreed, that the colonel should have the first fire, his shot took place in the body of Mr. Swift, whose pistol went off, in consequence of the shock on receiving the wound.—The parties then quitted the field.

3. Letters from New York, mention, that on the 4th ult. general Washington, president of the United States of America, gave a grand entertainment on account of the recovery of his Britannic majesty from his late dangerous illness. The envoys of England, France, Holland, and Portugal, and persons of the first distinction were present.

4. Lord Malmesbury, late ambassador to the states general in Holland, having obtained leave of his court, to resign that employment, instead of taking personal leave of their High Mightinesses, took occasion to express by letter, his acknowledgments for the favours he received during the time he had the happiness of residing with their high mightinesses, which Mr. Fitzherbert, the new minister, was charged by his majesty to deliver, together with his letter of credence, to the states general of the United Provinces. In the conclusion of this letter his lordship says, "He shall ever esteem this epoch (the period of his embassy) amongst the most happy moments of his life. He has seen, during his mission, peace and good order re-established in the republic; he has seen its ancient constitution revived and fixed; and he has had the glory of being the instrument by which the king his master has chosen to renew, by a solemn treaty, the union so natural between the two nations.

"This consideration will shed a pleasure on the rest of his days; and he will not cease wishing for the glory, welfare, and prosperity of the republic of the United Provinces, as well as for that of the serene House of Orange.

London, July 3. MALMESBURY."

The above having been read, their high mightinesses resolved, that a gold chain and medal, of the value of 6,000 florins of Holland, be presented to lord Malmesbury, as a token of their approbation and friendship; and that another, value 600 florins be presented to his secretary.

9. One Tyne, a taylor, who, last year, killed one Earl, a shoemaker, in a boxing match at Brighthelmstone [(*See Vol.* ix. *p.* (35)], is dead of the bruises he received last Tuesday, in a battle with a tinman, at Wimbledon.

10. Mr. Williams and family of Bratton school, were alarmed from sleep by a dreadful fire, which burst out from the roof of their house. The consternation occasioned by this event, at such a time, is inexpressible. By the mercy of Providence, however, not a single person of nearly fifty was hurt.—Mr. Williams has sustained a heavy loss; but two neighbouring gentlemen have afforded him substantial assistance; one, by accommodating him with a large house at Westbury, for the immediate reception of his scholars; the other, by beginning a subscription with a liberal donation.

11. Came on before lord Kenyon, and a special jury, an indictment on the prosecution of the duke of York against Mr. Walter, for publishing, on the 21st of February last, a newspaper, called "The Times," containing two libellous paragraphs, reflect-

reflecting on the characters of the dukes of York, Glouceſter, and Cumberland, as *inſincere* in their profeſſi ns of joy on his majeſty's happy recovery. The jury brought in their verdict *Guilty*.

13. A melancholy affair happened in Whitechapel: Mr. Tyler, a butcher in that ſtreet, having apprehenſions that his next door neighbour, Mr. Edis, of the ſame trade, had improper views upon his ſiſter, warned him of the fatal conſequences that would inevitably attend his perſeverance in ſuch a conduct, and received every aſſurance that could be ſuppoſed ſatisfactory on the occaſion. Mr. Tyler, however, thinking he had reaſon to miſtruſt theſe aſſurances, on Saturday evening exchanged apartments with his ſiſter. That ſame evening Mr. Edis attempted to enter the window of the chamber, and was inſtantly ſhot dead by Mr. Tyler.—The coroner's inqueſt have brought in their verdict *juſtifiable homicide*.

14. Was tried before lord Kenyon, an indictment upon the proſecution of Mrs. Fitzherbert, againſt the Rev. Dr. Withers, for publiſhing a ſcandalous libel reflecting upon her character.

Mr. Erſkine ſaid, he had the honour to be acquainted with the lady who was compelled to this appeal for the protection of her reputation; ſhe was a perſon of the moſt amiable character; and had never given the leaſt provocotion for the calumny of which ſhe had been made the ſubject. The defendant was a clergyman, who, inſtead of employing his time as became his ſacred profeſſion, had devoted it in throwing ſlander upon the moſt honourable and virtuous characters. He then ſtated, that the defendant had publiſhed a pamphlet, from which he read the following libellous paragraphs,

"She adopted the ſtale artifice of abſenting herſelf for ſome months; went to Lorrain, and contracted an acquaintance with the marquis of D——, with whom ſhe lived in the greateſt familiarity; the conſequence of this intimacy was, the neceſſity of her retiring to Paris, when, by means of her Scotch toad-eaters, the ſcandalous tranſaction was induſtriouſly concealed." This libel purports to be a letter directed to the defendant. At the word Paris, there is an aſteriſk, and at the place, to which it refers, nearly the following words: "Does the author mean to inſinuate that Lorrain was unable to provide a midwife, and the other neceſſaries to carry into execution the divine command—increaſe and multiply?"

Lord Kenyon lamented, that the moſt exalted virtue was no ſhield againſt calumny; and deſired the jury, if they were not ſatisfied about the meaning of the libel, to take the pamphlet out of court, and to conſider it deliberately.

The jury immediately found the defendant guilty.

16. Advice is received from Paris, of a great revolution in France, the capture of the Baſtile, and the execution of the governor of that fortreſs, and other obnoxious perſons, by the populace. Among the unhappy perſons who owed their emancipation from impriſonment to this wonderful revolution, was the earl of Maſſareene, of Ireland, who, in conſequence of conſiderable debts, contracted in France, through the artifices of ſome needy adventurers, had been impriſoned many years in the Chatelet. The natural love of liberty led his lordſhip to lay a plan for his eſcape; but the carriage, which was waiting for his reception, was kept ſo long hovering about the priſon, that it cauſed ſuſpicion among the gaol-keepers. His lordſhip

ſhip was apprehended as he was entering the carriage, and immediately ſent into a dungeon many feet below the ſurface of the Seine, upon which the Chatelet is built. He remained there in ſuch a ſtate of wretchedneſs, that his beard grew to a moſt immoderate length, and rendered him a moſt ſtriking picture of the viciſſitudes of human life. He had nearly been ſtopped at Calais on his way to Dover. He was with two other gentlemen, his companions in misfortunes, and being all extremely mean and ſhabbily dreſſed, were ſuſpected for bad perſons, and no one ſeemed deſirous to embark in the Packet with them. He was at length obliged to declare himſelf. On landing at Dover, his lordſhip was the firſt to jump out of the boat, and in the fullneſs of his joy, and in gratitude to Heaven for his deliverance, immediately fell on his knees, and kiſſing the ground thrice, exclaimed, "God bleſs this land of liberty." *See the Marriages.*

31. At Wincheſter aſſizes, came on before judge Buller and a ſpecial jury, an intereſting cauſe between Dr. Farr, of Plymouth and Mr. Hickes, an attorney at Lymington.

Mr. Erſkine, the doctor's counſel, claimed an eſtate for him, as heir at law to the late Mr. Dale. He was aware, however, that a will in favour of the defendant, would be produced, which had been ſubſcribed by the teſtator, in the preſence of three witneſſes; and he admitted that he was in poſſeſſion of no evidence to ſhew that Mr. Dale was inſane, or incapable of making a will; but he had no doubt, when the will came to be proved by the defendant's counſel, it would appear plainly, from the inconſiſtency of the will itſelf, and from the examination of the ſubſcribing witneſſes, though they were the creatures of Mr. Hickes, that in the reſiduary clauſe, by which he took the eſtates, he had put in his own name inſtead of Dr. Farr's, and thereby impoſed on Mr. Dale. He ſhould call but one witneſs, who, though perfectly honeſt and diſintereſted, was ſo timorous and nervous, that he would not ſtate her teſtimony; he wiſhed the jury to hear her with indulgence, and he would apply it to the cauſe by proper obſervation, in due ſeaſon. Mr. Erſkine then ſat down, and the witneſs, who appeared afterwards to be a natural daughter of the deceaſed, and a legatee of one thouſand pounds, under the will, ſwore—That about ten days before Mr. Dale's death, Mr. Hickes came to Chewſon, and told the witneſs old Mr. Dale was going to provide for her by his will. that he was afterwards two hours with the teſtator, who gave the witneſs the will, to put in a drawer, and gave her the key. That Mr. Hickes, when he went home, deſired her to ſee that Mr. Dale did not go to the drawer, and next day aſked if he had been there; that the will was then executed in the preſence of the three witneſſes, brought by Mr. Hickes, but was not read over to Mr. Dale. The witneſs on her croſs-examination, was more firm and recollected than on her firſt.

Mr. Morris, counſel for the defendant, then expreſſed his aſtoniſhment, that a gentleman of his friend's rank and experience, ſhould ſet out from London with ſuch a caſe, and offer it to a jury of gentlemen, to overturn a will, admitted by him to be duly executed; by a woman half a fool, ſwearing to a few looſe diſjointed expreſſions, which amounted to nothing like evidence. He expatiated on the danger of ſo overſetting

ſetting a will; and then called the ſubſcribing witneſſes, who ſwore, That the will lay open before the teſtator, who ſigned it in their preſence, and aſked them to atteſt it.

On croſs-examination, they ſaid it was not read to Mr. Dale; that when they ſubſcribed the will they did not know that Mr. Hickes had any thing under it. The will was in Mr. Hickes's hand, and nobody was called to ſhew when he took the inſtructions.

Mr. Erſkine replied. His argument was principally pointed to ſhew the impoſſibility of any man, who was acting honeſtly, conducting himſelf as Mr. Hickes had conducted himſelf: and ſaid he did not aſk a verdict, if the judge did not confirm him, in ſaying that it was the ſtrongeſt ſort of proof.

The judge after ſumming up the evidence obſerved, That the formal execution of the will was very ſtrong for the defendant; but his conduct was ſtrong againſt him.

The jury after retiring, brought in their verdict for Dr. Farr, by which he recovers all the real eſtates of the deceaſed.

AUGUST.

Exeter, Auguſt 13. Their majeſties, and their royal highneſſes the princeſſes, having ſet out from Weymouth at eight o'clock this morning, arrived at the Deanery at nine o'clock this evening, in perfect health. *Gaz.*

Saltram, near Plymouth, Auguſt 15. This morning, about nine o'clock, their majeſties, and their royal highneſſes the princeſſes, ſet out from Exeter, and arrived at this ſeat in perfect health, at half after three this afternoon. *Ib.*

18. At the laſt Lent aſſizes for the county of Northampton, Winifred Gordon, and her ſon Thomas Gordon, were convicted of murder. Their caſe is thus related: Mr. Gordon, ſurgeon and apothecary, of London, retired into that county, with his wife and ſon. The father, continuing to follow his profeſſion, which was that of a ſurgeon and apothecary, became obnoxious, for no other reaſon than that the country people conſidered them as foreigners, as not being born in the county. There were frequently little quarrels between the neighbours and them, till at laſt a juſtice's warrant was obtained for a ſuppoſed aſſault by the father. The conſtable came to their houſe to take the father on the warrant; the mother and ſon told the conſtable that he was not at home, which the conſtable knew was not true. He went away, and returned in a ſhort time with ſome other people, who going to make a forcible entry, the mother and ſon with a gun oppoſed them; after a ſtone was flung at the windows, the mother ſaid to the ſon, Fire, fire! which he inſtantly did, and killed the conſtable on the ſpot. Being both found guilty a caſe was reſerved for the opinion of the judges. The caſe of the ſon was, whether it was neceſſary to prove the appointment of the conſtable on the trial; for, if he had not been conſtable, it would have been juſtifiable homicide? The judges were of opinion againſt the ſon. The caſe of the mother was, that ſhe being indicted as acceſſary before the fact, the evidence turning out that ſhe was principal, the judge had doubts whether ſhe was properly convicted. The caſe was argued before the twelve judges laſt term, who were of opinion that the indictment was bad.

At the laſt aſſizes, Mr. baron Hotham, before he left the town, reſpited the execution till Monday, Auguſt

guſt 3, in order that he might have an opportunity of applying to the throne for mercy. Great intereſt was accordingly made for him; his majeſty, in the moſt gracious manner, granted a ſecond reſpite and was greatly inclined to pardon him. —In the ſequel, however, it was not judged expedient to grant a pardon, and the unhappy youth was executed yeſterday.

19. In Germany an excellent and cheap dye has been invented by Wogler, adapted to woollen and cotton manufactures. It conſiſts ſimply of the ſeeds of the red trefoil, a plant very common in this country, and employed to feed horſes and cattle. A decoction of theſe ſeeds is mixed with different mineral ſubſtances, and the dyes produced are very beautiful, and of a great variety. Among theſe are yellows and greens of different ſhades, as alſo citron and orange colours. Theſe dyes reſiſt the action of the ſubſtances with which trials are uſually made much better than the common dyes, and promiſe many advantages, if adopted, to the manufactures of this country.

24. Laſt week was celebrated at Nuneham, in Oxfordſhire, an entertainment, which, by the goodneſs of lord and lady Harcourt, is become annual, and which moſt deſervedly may be called a *Fete de Vertu*. The entertainment is admirably calculated to promote general good behaviour and induſtry among the poor inhabitants of Nuneham. Prizes of merit are given to thoſe inhabitants who have behaved beſt during the whole year; and prizes of induſtry to thoſe women and girls who ſpin beſt on the day of the fete. The former prizes were diſtributed at church, with which the ceremonies of the day commenced, at which time a very excellent ſermon, or rather charge, on the occaſion, was addreſſed to the perſons immediately concerned, by the miniſter of the pariſh. The latter prizes were awarded to the ſucceſsful candidates by umpires well qualified to eſtimate the quality of the ſpun materials. Before the ſpinning began, a dinner was prepared for the poor people, which was rendered doubly agreeable to the gueſts by the amiable affability and attention of their noble patrons. The ſpinning ſcene exhibited a ſpectacle quite novel to moſt of the ſpectators preſent, and very intereſting to all. The evening of the fete was concluded with a dance.

Plymouth Dock, Auguſt, 27. This morning the king, with the queen and three princeſſes, left Saltram on their way to Weymouth, after a ſtay of twelve days; during which time their majeſties, accompanied by the princeſſes, and attended by the board of admiralty, viewed the dock-yard, the ſhips building and and repairing, and thoſe on float; went on board the Impregnable, a guardſhip of 90 guns, and the Royal Sovereign, a new ſhip of 100 guns in ordinary; and proceeded to ſea in the Southampton frigate (accompanied by the Magnificent, of 74 guns), to view the ſquadron of evolution, under the command of commodore Goodall, which was cruizing in the offing.

His majeſty alſo inſpected the Victualling-office; and afterwards took a view of the Citadel, Gun-Wharf, and works on the heights near Cauſand-Bay, accompanied by the maſter-general of the ordnance, and the governor of the garriſon.

His majeſty's barge was conſtantly attended by the board of admiralty, the rear-admiral commanding in the port, and the captains of the ſhips, under his command, in their

heir reſpective barges; and the royal tandard, whenever it appeared in ight, was ſaluted by his majeſty's hips, and by the guns at the Cita-el, Drake's Iſland, and the ſeveral batteries on ſhore.

His majeſty expreſſed the higheſt pprobation of the good order and liſcipline of the fleet; of the excel-ent condition of the Dock-yard, rſenals, and garriſon, and the egularity with which every thing vas conducted; and ſhewed the ut-noſt ſatisfaction at the demonſtra-ions of loyalty and attention with vhich he was received by all ranks of people, who aſſembled in great numbers from every quarter, to en-oy the happineſs of ſeeing their overeign amongſt them.

The king was yeſterday graciouſ-y pleaſed to confer the honour of knighthood on Thomas Byard, eſq. captain of the Impregnable, who had the honour, each day, to ſteer his majeſty's barge; and alſo to di-rect that the commanders of the Termagant and Waſp Sloops be promoted to the rank of poſt-cap-tains in his majeſty's fleet; the lieutenants commanding the Speed-well and Brazen cutters, and the firſt lieutenants of the Barfleur, Im-pregnable, Carnatic, Bombay-caſtle, Magnificent, and Southampton, to the rank of maſters and command-ers; and that twelve midſhipmen be made lieutenants.

And his majeſty was alſo graci-ouſly pleaſed to order the following ſums to be diſtributed, viz.

To the artificers, workmen, and labourers of the Dock-yard, Victu-alling-office, and Gun-wharf, 150l.

To the poor of Plymouth, Stone-houſe, and Plymouth Dock, 250l.

To the crews of his majeſty's barge, and of the ſeveral barges which attended upon him during his ſtay here, 200l. *Gaz.*

Weymouth, Aug. 29. Their ma-jeſties, with their royal highneſſes the princeſſes, having left Saltram on Thurſday morning laſt, arrived at Exeter at three o'clock in the af-ternoon, where they paſſed the night. They ſet out from thence at eight o'clock yeſterday morning, and returned hither at four in the afternoon, in perfect health. *Ib.*

York, Aug. 28. The prince of Wales and duke of York arrived on the race-ground on Monday afternoon, and highly gratified an immenſe concourſe of ſpectators by their ap-pearance upon the Grand Stand. On Tueſday the prince of Wales was waited upon by the corporation, who went in proceſſion in their for-malities from the Guildhall to the Deanery, preceded by their band of muſic playing "*God ſave the King*," and preſented the following addreſs to his royal highneſs, with the free-dom of this ancient city in a moſt elegant gold box, which were very graciouſly received.

"To his royal highneſs George prince of Wales.

"May it pleaſe your royal high-neſs,

"The lord-mayor and corpora-tion of the city of York, animated with the moſt lively gratitude for the high honour conferred on this anci-ent city by our preſence, beg leave to approach your royal perſon with the utmoſt reſpect and moſt cordial affection. This honour, Sir, is greatly increaſed by your royal highneſs being the only heir appa-rent to the imperial crown of this realm, whom they have ever had the felicity perſonally to addreſs.

"They cannot reſiſt the preſent favourable opportunity of expreſſing their juſt admiration of, and un-feigned acknowledgements for the wiſdom and moderation which ſo eminently diſtinguiſhed the affec-

tionate

tionate and princely conduct of your royal highneſs in the moſt awful and trying ſituation, when all men looked up to your royal highneſs for protection with the fulleſt aſſurance of receiving it; and bleſſed as this kingdom hath been by divine Providence in the happy recovery of our moſt gracious ſovereign, (for whom they entertain the warmeſt ſentiments of duty and loyalty), it is their fervent prayer that when it ſhall pleaſe the Almighty to call his majeſty to a heavenly throne, your royal highneſs may ſucceed him in the hearts and affections of a free, brave, and loyal people, and long live to reign over them with the happineſs and glory of a patriot king.

"Your royal highneſs is reſpectfully entreated to permit your royal name to be enrolled amongſt the freemen of this ancient city, and to accept the freedom thereof, which is thus humbly offered to your royal highneſs's gracious reception."

To which addreſs his royal highneſs returned the following anſwer:

"My lord-mayor and gentlemen,

"I thank you for your loyal and affectionate addreſs, and for the ſatisfaction which you expreſs at my viſit to the city of York.

"It gives me very ſincere pleaſure that my conduct has been properly underſtood by you, and that my opinions as to the powers neceſſary to have been truſted to me for the general welfare, have not been miſtaken by the reſpectable citizens of York for an extravagant luſt of power, or any unbecoming haſte to aſſume the ſeat, which to be called to as late as poſſible is the conſtant and warmeſt wiſh of my heart. Impelled with theſe ſentiments, I muſt, above all others, rejoice in that happy event which is the ſubject of your joyful congratulations, and which touches my feelings not more as an affectionate ſon than as the perſon the moſt intereſted in every thing which concerns the proſperity and happineſs of the realm.

"I with pleaſure accept the freedom of this ancient city, and your offer of enrolling my name amongſt its citizens."

His royal highneſs was attended on this occaſion by the dukes of Bedford and Queenſberry; earls Fitzwilliam, Carliſle, and Derby; colonel St. Leger, lord Clermont, capt. Fitzroy, Mr. Wyndham, lord Downe, lord Foley, lord Rawdon, lord Fielding, ſir John Ramſden, Mr. Wentworth, ſir Thomas Dundas, Mr. Warwick Lake, &c.

29. At Warwick aſſizes, Thomas Wale, Joſ. Carter, Thomas Tucky, and Thomas Iorns, church-wardens and overſeers of a pariſh near Coventry, were tried for a conſpiracy in procuring a marriage between Elizabeth Horne, a pauper belonging to their own pariſh, and Joſeph Dee, of Stoneleigh, in order to remove the burthen from themſelves; they were found guilty, and ſentenced to ſix months impriſonment, and Carter and Wale are to pay a fine of 20l. each.

SEPTEMBER.

2. Earl Fitzwilliam gave a magnificent fête at Wentworth-houſe in Yorkſhire, in honour of a viſit from the prince of Wales.

In coming to town from Wentworth-houſe, the prince of Wales encountered an alarming accident, but which was attended by no ill conſequence. About two miles on the other ſide of Newark, a cart, croſſing the road, ſtruck the axle of the prince's coach and overturned it. It was on the verge of a ſlope, and the carriage fell a conſiderable way, turned over twice, and was ſhivered

ſhivered to pieces. There were in the coach with his royal highneſs, lord Clermont, col. St. Leger, and col. Lake. Two of the prince's ſervants were on the box.

The prince ſuffered only a ſlight contuſion in the ſhoulder, and his wriſt was ſprained. His highneſs was undermoſt in the firſt fall, and by the next roll of the carriage was brought uppermoſt, when he diſengaged himſelf, and was the firſt to diſengage and reſcue his fellow-travellers: lord Clermont was the moſt hurt. He is much wounded in the face, and is otherwiſe ſo ſeverely bruiſed, that he was obliged to remain at Newark. The other gentlemen were, like the prince, fortunate enough to eſcape with little hurt. The accident happened at ten o'clock at night, and it was a clear moon light. The carriage was his royal highneſs's own travelling-coach, with hired horſes and poſtillions; and the miſchance was occaſioned by the wilfulneſs of the poſtillions, who drove to clear the cart with their common precipitation. Col. Lake's poſt-chaiſe being cloſe behind, the prince and lord Clermont went forward in it to Newark, where his highneſs ſlept, and proceeded to London the next morning.

Shrewſbury, Sept. 11. On Saturday were executed at the Old Heath, near this place, purſuant to their ſentence at our laſt aſſizes, Thomas Phipps, eſq. the elder, and Thomas Phipps the younger, (father and only ſon), of Llwyney Mapſis, in this county, for forging and uttering a note of hand for 20l. purporting to be the note of Mr. Richard Coleman of Oſweſtry, knowing the ſame to be forged.

It was proved on the trial, that Mr. Coleman never had any tranſactions with Mr. Phipps that required the ſigning of any note whatever; that about Chriſtmas laſt, Mr. Coleman was ſerved with a writ, by order of Mr. Phipps at his own ſuit; which action Mr. Coleman defended; that Mr. Phipps not ſupporting it, a *non pros* was ſigned in the action with 2l. 3s. coſt, whereupon, Mr. Phipps and his ſon, with William Thomas, their clerk, made an affidavit, ſtating, that the note was for a treſpaſs in carrying away ſome hay from off the land of one of Mr. Phipps's tenants, which Mr. Coleman had taken. Upon this affidavit, the court of Exchequer granted a rule, to ſhew cauſe why the *non pros* ſhould not be ſet aſide. Mr. Coleman inſiſting that the note was a forgery, the matter reſted in ſuſpence until the event of this proſecution. After a full hearing of the evidence on both ſides, and the judge's charge to the jury, the two Phipps's were pronounced guilty of uttering and publiſhing the note, knowing the ſame to have been forged. The judge immediately paſſed ſentence of death upon them, and recommended the jury to acquit William Thomas, who was accordingly found Not Guilty.

Mr. Phipps and his ſon, from the time of their condemnation till the morning of their execution, perſiſted in their innocence. However, before they left the gaol, young Phipps confeſſed that he committed the forgery, avowed his father's innocence of it, and ignorance of its being forged, when publiſhed.—They were taken in a mourning coach to the place of execution, accompanied by a clergyman, and another pious perſon, who had attended them almoſt daily ſince their condemnation. On their way to the fatal tree, the father ſaid to the ſon, "Tommy, thou haſt brought me to this ſhameful end, but I freely forgive thee." To which the ſon

ſon made no reply. It being remarkably wet weather, the devotions were chiefly performed in the coach.

When the awful moment arrived that they muſt leave the ſable vehicle, Mr. Phipps ſaid to his ſon, "You have brought me hither, do you lead the way;" which the youth accordingly did, and in the moſt compoſed manner aſcended the ladder to a temporary ſcaffold, erected on purpoſe, followed by his father. When the devotions were finiſhed, and the convicts tied up, they embraced each other, and in a few moments the executioner let down the ſcaffold, and they were launched into eternity, amidſt a vaſt concourſe of deeply affected ſpectators, beholding a parent and child ſuffering an ignominious death for violating the laws of their country.

Mr. Phipps was in his 47th year, and his ſon juſt 20.

Their fate is not a little aggravated, when it is conſidered that Mr. Phipps was poſſeſſed of about 300l. a year landed property, beſide his practiſe as an attorney. He has left an unhappy widow, and an amiable daughter, about 16 years of age.

17. Mr. Gibbs of Weſtbury, who generouſly accommodated Mr. Williams of Bratton-ſchool, with the uſe of his houſe [*See p.* (24)] has ſince had it burnt down. This created a ſuſpicion that one of the boys muſt be the incendiary, which has proved the fact. The boy on whom the ſuſpicion fell has made a confeſſion of his having accidentally ſet fire to the ſchool-houſe at Bratton, and wilfully to that of Mr. Gibbs. On his examination he ſaid, "the thought unluckily came into his head, that, if he could burn the ſchool-room at Weſtbury, he might be ſent home, to which his father had not permitted him to return for fifteen or ſixteen months paſt."—He was committed to Devizes priſon. [*A few days after, he put an end to his exiſtence.*]

Tottenham Park, September 17. Their majeſties, with their royal highneſſes the princeſſes, ſet out from Weymouth on Monday morning laſt, at nine o'clock, and at ſix in the evening arrived at Longleate, the ſeat of the marquis of Bath; from whence they departed yeſterday morning at eleven o'clock, and arrived at this place at four in the afternoon. *Gaz.*

Windſor, Sept. 18. Their majeſties and their royal highneſſes the princeſs royal, princeſs Auguſta, and princeſs Elizabeth, ſet out from Tottenham Park at ten o'clock this morning, and arrived here at three this afternoon, in perfect health. *Ib.*

20. The chapel of Greenwich hoſpital, which had undergone a ten years repair, in conſequence of the devaſtation made by the fire that happened there on the 2d of January 1779, was opened, and divine ſervice performed in it.—The rebuilding and decorations of it coſt 84,000l.

21. A gamekeeper belonging to the earl of Berkeley, on ſetting his lordſhip's ſpring-guns in the paddock, was ſhot dead on the ſpot. What is remarkable is, that in the courſe of four years, by the ſame gun, three game-keepers have loſt their lives, and one gentleman ſhockingly wounded in fixing the wire to the ground.

29. Wm. Pickett, eſq. elected lord-mayor; Mr. alderman Newman, and Thomas Baker, eſq. having been previouſly ſworn in ſheriffs, after ſeveral other gentlemen, elected by the livery, had either fined, pleaded diſqualifications, refuſed to give bond, or been declared ineligible.

OCTO-

OCTOBER.

. Colonel Roſs, who laſt week
ertook to ride one horſe from
don to York in 48 hours, for a
e wager, performed his journey
6 hours and a half, with eaſe,
he had only 15 miles to travel in
laſt five hours. The diſtance
n London to York is 202 miles.
colonel paſſed through Stam-
on Sunday, on his return to
don, riding on the ſame horſe
ch performed the journey.

. The following is the ſtate of
Carron manufactory in Scot-
, the greateſt perhaps of the
known in the world: the
kly conſumption of coals
unts to 11,000 tons, at 4s. per
; and the conſumption of each
is equal to that of the city of
nburgh during a whole week.
many coals, therefore, are con-
ed in the Carron founderies as
ld ſuffice to ſupply a city of
,000 inhabitants. A thouſand
kmen are daily employed in
manufactory, whoſe wages
unt to 700l. per week, and
40l. per annum. The demands
n abroad, and particularly from
in, continue yearly to increaſe.

. Two plants of the cochineal
ntia have been ſent from Kew
dens, and ſeveral others brought
n China to Madras, where they
cultivated with ſucceſs, and pro-
e to rival the nopal of Mexico,
n whence our rich ſcarlet dye is
acted.

The favourableneſs of the cli-
e, the habitual induſtry of the
ves, and ſurpriſing cheapneſs of
our, have very fortunately in-
ed the Eaſt India company to
oduce the cochineal inſect into
r Aſiatic dominions. Accord-
y, in conſequence of orders from
gland, ſir Archibald Campbell,
1789.

before he left Madras, marked out and incloſed a ſpot of ground proper for a nopalary, and appointed a ſuperintendant, under the direction of Dr. James Anderſon, for the care and management of this article of commerce. Thus there is good reaſon to expect that this valuable drug will be obtained much cheaper from India in a few years than it can be procured from the Spaniſh ſettlements, as the labour of women in Aſia does not exceed three halfpence per day, which is leſs than one-tenth of what it coſts in Mexico. It is therefore likely that this branch of commerce will fall into our hands; a circumſtance highly deſerving of notice, as the annual imports into Europe at preſent amount to upward of 300,000l. ſterling.

Seeds of the oldenlandia umbellata, from the roots of which plant it extracted the fine permanent red dye ſo much admired in India cottons, have been ſent to our Weſt India iſlands by Dr. Anderſon, of Madras. This plant is ſo valuable in India, that it is ſold there for one guinea per pound. Some prepared roots are alſo ſent to England, to try if the dye can be extracted from it in this country. If this can be effected, a trade will be eſtabliſhed in that article from India, to the great benefit of our cotton manufactures.

8. At the general quarter ſeſſions of the peace, held at Chelmsford for the county of Eſſex, the opinions of meſſrs. Bearcroft and Shepherd were read, on the ſingular caſe of lord Loughborough having, at the laſt aſſizes, impoſed a fine of 500l. on the county of Eſſex, for not having in their gaol two diſtinct rooms for the male and female invalids within the ſaid priſon, conformable to the ſtatute of the 14th of Geo. III. The ſaid opinions

ſtated, with becoming diffidence, their doubt of the legal authority, under which ſuch fine had been impoſed, and pointed out, that on its being eſtreated into the court of exchequer, a motion to that honourable court would probably afford the county relief. The court then came, unanimouſly, to the following reſolution, viz. "To reſiſt the payment of the fine thus laid upon the inhabitants of the county of Eſſex, as an impoſition not warranted by law."

10. About two years ago, Mr. John Crombie, merchant in Haddington, ſuffered a loſs by fire, and the damage being eſtimated by four gentlemen, the money was paid by the Sun-fire office. By the activity, however, of Mr. Crombie and his ſervants, the loſs afterwards turning out to be 30 guineas leſs than what was paid, that gentleman remitted the money to the Sun fire-office, who, highly pleaſed with ſuch an inſtance of integrity, ordered a ſilver plate, with a ſuitable inſcription, to the value of twenty guineas, to be preſented to Mr. Crombie, and ten guineas to his ſervants.

Nantwich, Oct. 9. Early on the morning of the 7th inſt, the banks of the aqueduct of the Staffordſhire canal, acroſs Wincham valley, in this county, gave way, from whence the water ruſhed down into the river beneath with the greateſt impetuoſity. Two corn-mills on the ſame ſtream below were in imminent danger of being forced down by the vaſt body of water driving from the canal upon them, but fortunately received much leſs damage than might have been expected; in conſequence of which, and the general heavy rains on the preceding night, there was one of the greateſt floods ever remembered on the river Weaver on Wedneſday laſt. The water in the river roſe from 16 to 18 feet above its uſual height. Moſt of the ſtreets were under a violent current of water, from ſix to eight feet deep, and almoſt every avenue impaſſable except in boats. Several hundred thouſand buſhels of ſalt were deſtroyed, and very great injury done to the ſalt-houſes; the town and ſalt-works ſurrounded, and in many places three parts covered with one general inundation, formed a ſcene beyond deſcription awful.

16. This day, juſt as the duke of Orleans was about to embark at Boulogne, he was ſtopped by a body of fiſh-women, by whom he was diſcovered, and obliged to return to his hotel, where the magiſtrates immediately confined him, and placed a guard over him, till the National Aſſembly ſhould be informed of the event.

21. The duke of Orleans arrived in town.—His ſerene highneſs was immediately viſited by the prince of Wales and ſeveral noblemen of the firſt diſtinction. The duke was relieved from his bondage at Boulogne on Tueſday morning, as ſoon as the expreſs returned from Paris; and the magiſtrates apologiſed for the rudeneſs of the fiſh-women.

22. The remuneration of the king's phyſicians is thus finally ſettled:

To Dr. Willis, the father, 1500l per ann. for 21 years.

To Dr. Willis, the ſon, 650l. per ann. for life.

To the other phyſicians, thirty guineas for each viſit to Windſor and ten guiueas for each viſit to Kew. This, to ſir George Baker who had the longeſt attendance does not amount to more than 130 guineas; and to all the others in proportion.

23. In ſome of the papers of this day is the following hint. —A friend to humanity begs to inform the pub-

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ic, that in the dangerous caſe of pins ſwallowed by accident, ſwallowing one egg undreſſed, and, in the courſe of an hour after, another, is an infallible remedy for carrying off the pins, if done immediately after they have been ſwallowed, that is, before the pins have worked themſelves into the coats of the ſtomach.

25. Yeſterday the new-raiſed regiment of London militia were paraded in the artillery-ground by eight o'clock in the morning. They afterwards marched to St. Paul's, to hear divine ſervice. —According to their new and improved eſtabliſhments, they conſiſt of four companies of 144 picked men each, including officers. On their review the other day in the artillery ground, they made a very reſpectable appearance, and were complimented by ſeveral officers of the guards, on the exactneſs of their evolutions, which was hardly to be exceeded by any of their own corps.

New York, May 18. The ſhip Cheſapeak, from Bengal, John O' Donnel, eſq. owner and commander, has brought a valuable cargo, conſiſting of almoſt every production and manufacture of Aſia. He has had a very quick paſſage, being only four months, including five or ſix days ſtay at the iſlands of St. Helena and Aſcenſion, from Bengal. By Mr. O'Donnel we have the following intelligence:

The Cheſapeak was the firſt American veſſel allowed to hoiſt the colours of the United States in the celebrated river Ganges, and to trade there. When earl Cornwallis, the governor general, then at a great diſtance up the country, was applied to by letter from Calcutta to know in what manner the Americans were to be received, his anſwer was "on the ſame footing with other nations." This anſwer, being probably conformable to his inſtructions from Great Britain, evinces the friendly diſpoſition of that nation in that quarter; for the American ſhips pay no more at any of the Engliſh ſettlements of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, which Mr. O' Donnel viſited, than other foreigners. It is to be noticed alſo, that the ſupreme council of Bengal have taken off a heavy duty, called government cuſtoms, which included exports as well as imports; this duty all other nations, except the Engliſh, are liable to.

26. The brig Bell, of Glaſgow, from Jamaica to Georgia, on the 1ſt of April, off the Matanzas, was ſtruck with lightning, which inſtantly killed eleven of the crew. The captain and two men eſcaped death, but much hurt. A few hours after the accident, the veſſel, with 150 negroes, went down. The captain and his two companions laſhed ſome ſpars together, and with difficulty reached a key near Cape Florida, where they remained five weeks in the moſt wretched condition. They were afterwards relieved by a wrecker off New Providence, and have ſince arrived at Philadelphia.

27. On the 20th of May laſt died, at the Caracas, Capt. Ceſpede, of the militia of Pardo, aged 110 years. He was eſteemed a prodigy in that climate, where the human race ſeldom exceed the age of ſixty. —At Telontia, in New Spain, about the ſame period, Jean Cavetan, an Indian, aged 130 years, leaving behind him a ſon aged 60 years.

NOVEMBER.

4. Beſide the damage on the river by the great ſtorm on Saturday, the devaſtation at ſea, particularly in Yarmouth roads, was dreadful.

Of 150 ships in those roads, one half were dismasted, or otherwise damaged, and no less than 33 foundered.

5. Mr. Thomas Bradford, formerly an upholdsterer in Doncaster, but who, by losses in trade, a few years ago, became a bankrupt, and his last farthing was divided among his creditors; being a man of an active disposition, again engaged in trade, and the fickle goddess having smiled on his honest endeavours, he, on Tuesday last, by an advertisement in the country papers, called his creditors together, and paid them the whole of their demand, amounting to near 2000l. after which he gave them an elegant entertainment.

14. George Barrington, in consequence of a rule granted the preceding night, was brought up to the court of king's bench, on his own motion, to pray the allowance of a writ of error. After some conversation between the bench and his council, he addressed the court as follows:

"May it please your lordship,

"I most humbly intreat the indulgence of the court for a few minutes. I feel myself at a loss what to urge in apology for obtruding myself on the attention of the court, except in the peculiar predicament in which I am so unhappy as to stand, and I may add the humility and anxiety with which I am deeply impressed; but whatever diffidence and concern I feel, I cannot remain quite silent on the occasion. The reverence I owe the court, a respectable anxiety with regard to the opinion of the world, and personal justice, will not allow me to be totally silent under the charge of contumacy, imputed to me by this process, and for which the forfeiture of my life is required, though I was not in intention guilty, however appearances, as to fact, may have been against me: for, my lord, I solemnly declare, that notwithstanding the time which elapsed from the commencement to the completion of the outlawry, and though I had undergone a month's confinement in a distant part of the kingdom, from whence I was removed to the metropolis by writ of habeas corpus, and brought before sir Sampson Wright, I was then, for the first time, told of the proceedings of the outlawry. Till that dire moment I was really so unfortunate as not to have one word of intimation on the subject. Even the person who was sent down from Bow-street to Newcastle, kept my real situation from me as a profound mystery, which none but sir Sampson might reveal. And I trust, that on candid consideration, my ignorance in this respect will by no means appear incredible; for it can be easily conceived, that a man may be called by his concerns into a distant part of the kingdom, or out of the kingdom.

"In his absence a bill of indictment is preferred against him; on what grounds can never be fully known till a fair and regular trial has taken place. Indeed, whether he is absent or on the spot, a bill of indictment is found with no great difficulty, as nothing at that time is heard but what is alleged against the accused. The prosecutor can then instantly proceed to outlawry; and if the accused person should happen to be in a remote part of the country, or beyond the seas, where he may be detained by illness, or some other inevitable cause, the process may be pushed through its different stages, and be in force against him, before he knows a syllable of the matter. And here, perhaps,

haps, I may be allowed to remark, that if the publiſhers of the daily prints had been as free in communicating this buſineſs, as they had been uniformly profuſe of their fictions concerning me, it would have done them no diſcredit; or, if the perſons on the part of the proſecution had in that way given them ſome notice of their proceedings, even though the law ordained it not, it would have been no illiberal caution, or unworthy condeſcenſion, eſpecially on the ſolemn occaſion which went to preclude a fellow ſubject from his right of trial by jury, his life at ſtake, and every thing elſe that was dear ſo materially affected by ſo rigid and extraordinary a meaſure. But no intimation of the kind, I believe, was given, not ſo much as a ſingle advertiſement in a ſingle newſpaper, ſtating one circumſtance of the outlawry. It is true, I have been informed, during my confinement, there is a ſort of proclamation iſſued; but as it is merely local, confined to a particular ſpot in a particular county, and uttered by an officer, perhaps, in a low tone of voice, and in a curſory manner, it is very probable it may not reach the ears of the accuſed until it is too late, until it is in force againſt him. Returning to his family, he is taken into cuſtody; in vain he proteſts his innocence, in vain he ſolicits a trial. He is told in a word, that he is an outlaw; he is caſt into priſon, and where is his reſource? If he cannot command a conſiderable ſum of money, he muſt patiently abide in miſery and irons, as long as the proſecutor pleaſes; and at length, when, probably, the priſoner's body is debilitated, his mind haraſſed and his faculties impaired, by the complicated wretchedneſs of a priſon, the proſecutor, perhaps, condeſcends, in a kind of mercy, to bring him before this court to demand judgment of death againſt him. To urge judgment of death againſt a fellow-creature, and a fellow-ſubject, without a trial, without guilt being proved by unqueſtionable evidence on the one hand, or the accuſed allowed an opportunity for full vindication on the other; even the bare inſpection of proceedings, which paſſed in the priſoner's abſence, denied his counſel or attorney; in this dreadful, this tremendous predicament, I was brought before this auguſt court in Michaelmas term laſt year. The urbanity of the court ſhone forth on the occaſion with ſerene brightneſs, particularly in cauſing a record of the outlawry to be deliberately and repeatedly read.

"Without that urbanity what might have been my fate? A hapleſs victim, perhaps, to this extraordinary proceſs, untried and unheard; for though the ability and great legal knowledge of the gentlemen aſſigned as counſel on my behalf, are too well known to need my humble acknowledgment, yet, perhaps, no counſel, however gifted with learning, experience, and wiſdom, if they were not at the ſame time gifted with ſupernatural powers, could have been able, without the compaſſionate ſpirit of the court, to conſider duly the record, or to expoſe its errors. The humanity of the court was circumſcribed in no narrow limits. Time was alſo granted, that my counſel might conſider the legality of the proceedings; and the attorney-general having been pleaſed, ſome time after, to iſſue his writ of error, in conſequence of aſſignment of error by my counſel, it was not, perhaps, unreaſonable to hope, that the proſecutor would then either wave the

outlawry, and bring me to an immediate trial, or bring me before the court for their final determination as to the outlawry. The want of pecuniary means might hinder me from doing it, but he could have no ſuch impediment; and as he had laid a charge againſt me, why not bring it to an iſſue as ſoon as poſſible? But when he learned that a writ of error was obtained, he ſtopped his proceedings, leaving me to move myſelf before the court, if I could, or to ſuffer all the pains of impriſonment if I could not. The latter, unhappily for me, has been the caſe ever ſince; for I found myſelf diſtreſſed to the utmoſt degree, by the heavy and unavoidable expence attending the ſteps neceſſary for defence againſt the outlawry. I found myſelf diſappointed of the relief and remittance which I looked for from the feelings of relations in no mean circumſtances. I found myſelf threatened with death or perpetual impriſonment through the rigour of the proceſs on the one hand, and on the other there was the original indictment and obloquy and prepoſſeſſion to contend with. Thoſe diſtracting circumſtances, my lord, made up a part of a comfortleſs confinement of fifteen months paſt, and but a part, for the meaſure of affliction hath been filled by domeſtic concerns of a leſs public but not of a leſs poignant nature. How I have borne it, that Being beſt knows, without whoſe permiſſion no ſparrow falls to the ground, and who ſometimes tries, for his own wiſe purpoſes, the extremeſt ſtrength of his creatures; but ſurely I ſhould have ſunk under the weight of ſuch accumulated woe, if patience and hope had not been my ſupporters. But being at length enabled to bring my caſe before the court, not without ſome ray of hope of meeting ſoon a fair and impartial trial, I beg to be allowed in the humbleſt manner, to aſſure your lordſhip, that I ſhould feel little leſs pain than the award of the execution could inflict, if I were to quit this preſence without laying at the feet of the court my moſt humble, ſincere, and heartfelt thanks. And I truſt I ſhall not offend in embracing this opportunity to ſay how truly ſenſible I am of the liberal and diſpaſſionate conduct of the attorney-general in the matter. The fervent effuſion of a grateful heart may not perhaps be unacceptable to an amiable and exalted mind, which diſdained the idea of oppreſſing the oppreſſed, or being led by unfair bias. Give me leave, may it pleaſe your lordſhip, to declare, with the moſt reſpectful ſubmiſſion, that the benignity of the court, the candour of the attorney-general, and the able and earneſt exertions of the gentlemen in whoſe hands my defence is placed, have made an ardent and ſuitable impreſſion on my mind, a powerful impreſſion that will laſt for ever."

This ſpeech was heard with the moſt profound attention.

Mr. Le Meſurier, on the part of the proſecution, ſaid, if the priſoner had confined himſelf to his own ſituation, he ſhould not have ſaid a word on this buſineſs. But he ſeemed to find fault with the conduct of the proſecutor. He admitted the caſe of the priſoner was hard.—

Lord Kenyon here interpoſed, and obſerved there was no queſtion before the court, nor any provocation for the counſel to ſay any thing.

The priſoner was then remanded to Newgate. *See Vol. IX. p.* (27) & (37).

18. The preſence of his majeſty this evening at Covent garden theatre, (for the firſt time ſince his illneſs)

neſs) with the queen and the three eldeſt princeſſes, operated as a charm to fill the houſe beyond any thing ſince his majeſty's firſt appearance after his coronation. — The houſe reſounded with all the joyful expreſſions of loyalty and affection.

19. This day was effected the greateſt object of internal navigation in this kingdom. The Severn was united to the Thames by an intermediate canal aſcending by Stroud, through the vale of Chalford, to the height of 343 feet, by 40 locks; there entering a funnel through the hill of Sapertra, for the length of two miles and three furlongs, and deſcending by 22 locks, it joined the Thames near Lechlade.

A boat, with an union flag on her maſt-head, paſſed laden for the firſt time to St. John's bridge below Lechlade, in the preſence of great numbers of people who were aſſembled on the occaſion.

21. The rev. Dr. Withers was ſentenced by the court of king's bench to pay a fine of 50l. to be impriſoned 12 months in Newgate, and, afterwards to give ſecurity for five years, himſelf in 500l. and two ſecurities in 250l. each. *See page* (25).

23. Mr. Walter was ſentenced by the ſame court to pay a fine of 50l. to be impriſoned twelve months in Newgate, to ſtand once in the pillory at Charing croſs, and at the expiration of his impriſonment, to find ſecurity for his good behaviour for ſeven years, himſelf in 500l. and two others in 100l. each. *See page* (24).

26. George Barrington being again brought before the court of king's bench, Mr. Wood, one of his counſel, proceeded to ſtate the errors upon which he meant to argue that the preſent outlawry ought to be reverſed. The firſt error of which he ſhould take notice, was to be found in the return of the writ of exigent. The language of that return was this; "At my county court in and for the county of Middleſex," whereas it ought to have been, "At my county court of Middleſex," the words "of Middleſex" being neceſſary immediately after the words "my court." This error he ſaid was taken and allowed in the caſe of the King *v.* Wilkes; and if it was admitted in a civil caſe, ſurely it would not be rejected in a criminal one.

The ſecond error was in the return of the proclamation, where the priſoner is required to render himſelf on the 25th of February, which was ſubſequent to the time of the outlawry having been completed, the priſoner being an outlaw on the 21ſt of that month.

The court ſaid they ſhould forbear to give any opinion upon the firſt error ſtated by the priſoner's counſel; but that the ſecond objection was unqueſtionably fatal to the outlawry, and therefore ought to be reverſed.

Mr. juſtice Aſhhurſt then ſaid, "Let the judgment be reverſed, and the priſoner reſtored to all that he has loſt by the outlawry."

A *procedendo* was directed to carry back the indictment to its proper place.

The priſoner then gracefully bowed to the court, and was conducted to Newgate. *See p.* (36).

A duel was fought on the 26th of May by capt. Thomas Baker, and Jacob Brown, eſq. of Camden, South Carolina. They fired together at the diſtance of ten yards, and both fell; capt. Baker was ſhot through the body, and expired in the field in about twelve minutes. Mr. Brown was ſhot in the

lower part of his belly, and the ball was cut out of his left ſide, but he died twenty hours after. When theſe gentlemen had fallen, they converſed calmly together, and exchanged forgiveneſs.

30. Died this month at Galſton, in Scotland, Marian Gibſon, aged 100. About ten years ago ſhe received a ſet of new teeth, and her eye-ſight was ſo clear that ſhe could read the ſmalleſt print. She walked to Irwine, which is 13 miles from her place of reſidence, and returned next day. She ſpun upon the rock without the uſe of ſpectacles, and continued very ſtrait.—At Scrooby, near Bawtry, Mr. Thomas Loveday, aged 101 years, 75 of which he practiſed the occupation of a blackſmith and farmer.

DECEMBER.

1. The celebrated Dr. Herſchell has diſcovered a ſeventh ſatellite moving round Saturn, and ſtill nearer to his body than any of the reſt. It is about 26 ſeconds only of apparent diſtance from his centre; the exterior boundary of the ring being 22 ſeconds from it by eſtimation. The periodic time of this ſatellite is leſs than 24 hours; that of the ſixth is 32 hours 41 minutes, 12 ſeconds. Saturn's ring continues ſtill viſible, by Dr. Herſchell's largeſt teleſcope; and, a few nights ago, he ſaw three of the ſatellites on the ring at one time. The ring appears to him to be every where of an uniform thickneſs.

3. The freeholders of Yorkſhire, to perpetuate the memory of, and mark their eſteem for, their late worthy repreſentative ſir George Saville, bart. have, by ſubſcription, erected a ſtatue of him in York cathedral.

8. Was tried in the court of king's bench, an information againſt Mr. Perryman, late printer of the Morning Herald, for a libellous paragraph on the houſe of commons; charging the houſe with having been influenced by Mr. Pitt, to adopt and favour the defence, intended to be made by ſir Elijah Impey, to charges exhibited againſt him in the houſe, in oppoſition to public juſtice.

Lord Kenyon ſtated, that it certainly became the houſe, in ſupport of its dignity, as the grand inqueſt of the nation, on ſuch an occaſion to addreſs his majeſty (as in this inſtance they had done) to proſecute thoſe who had been guilty of charging them with improper motives in the execution of their duty. The houſe had paid a proper attention to the conſtitution, by ſending the caſe to be diſcuſſed before a jury, and not taking cognizance of it in virtue of their own authority, which might have cruſhed an individual without being heard. But, notwithſtanding this, the dignity of the houſe ought not to influence the verdict of the jury. They ought to conſider the queſtion on its own merits, as if it had been proſecuted by the meaneſt individual in the kingdom; every thing was to be decided by them on the evidence they had heard.

The queſtion was, whether this was a libel on the houſe of commons? If the jury were of opinion, that this paper did not reflect on the houſe of commons, however libellous on Mr. Pitt and ſir Elijah Impey, it would not conſtitute the offence charged in this information. The jury, without going out of court, pronounced the defendant, guilty.

9. Was tried, before lord Kenyon and a ſpecial jury, an information filed by the attorney-general, againſt Mr. Stockdale, bookſeller in Piccadilly,

cadilly, for publiſhing a libel upon the houſe of commons, reflecting upon their conduct in the impeachment of Mr. Haſtings.

After the attorney-general had ſpoken for the crown, and Mr. Erſkine for the defendant, the jury retired for the purpoſe of peruſing the libel, and comparing it with the conſtruction affixed to it by the information. After two hours deliberation, they returned with a verdict of "not guilty."

The ſame day, came on the trial of an action for criminal converſation, brought by capt. Parſloe againſt Mr. Sykes, ſon of ſir Francis Sykes, bart. The facts were fully proved; and the conduct of the defendant appeared to be marked by ſuch circumſtances of deliberate and deep-planned perfidy, and ſuch an atrocious dereliction of all the principles that are held dear and ſacred in ſociety, that the jury gave the whole damages, which the plaintiff had demanded.—*Ten thouſand pounds.*

10. Yeſterday, George Barrington was placed at the bar of the Old Bailey. He was indicted for privately ſtealing a purſe of money from Haviland Le Meſurier, eſq. on the 19th of January 1787. Mr. Le Meſurier, the counſel, in opening the caſe, informed the court, that he gave up the capital part. After the evidence for the proſecution had been heard (which did not appear ſufficiently ſtrong to fix the fact upon the priſoner) he was aſked whether he had any thing to ſay in his defence. He then entered into a very long and elegant defence, apparently unſtudied, from ſeveral heſitations which occurred in his delivery.—It went on the illiberality of the paragraphs againſt him, on the ſeverity of his confinement and outlawry, and on the prejudice attached to his general reputation. He ſpoke three quarters of an hour. He began thus: "The benignity and candour which mark the judicial proceedings of this country, of which I have recently met a diſtinguiſhed proof, induce me to hope, with the utmoſt humility, that the indulgent attention of the court will not be withheld on the preſent occaſion, but that it will be extended, not through the merit of any thing I can urge, but from the generous and impartial impulſe of your own minds, towards every one who is ſo unhappy as to ſtand here the ſubject of accuſation." He then proceeded to ſay, that this was juſt his caſe; that he was at the play by an order from a friend, and was coming out, when he was taken and carried to the Brown Bear, from which he found a convenient opportunity to withdraw—unfortunately to withdraw—and he hoped it would rather be conſidered as a retreat from prejudice, than a flight from accuſation; that he neither uſed violence nor pecuniary influence; and entirely acquitted Blandy from being privy to his retreat; yet, that if he were of a diſpoſition to rejoice at calamity, he might in this caſe, as that man (Blandy) was one of his worſt enemies, by introducing his name on all occaſions, and defaming him. He proceeded —"Among the vices incident to human nature, and the crimes which have been ſo laviſhly imputed to me, there are two which, I truſt, neither the accuſing ſpirit, nor the recording angel, need to bluſh or weep at on my account—I mean cruelty, and calumny, which is, perhaps, the worſt of cruelty." He ſpoke of the neceſſity of public juſtice, but ſaid, there was alſo ſuch a thing as individual juſtice; and concluded thus: "Gentlemen, per-

it me ultimately to obſerve, that the queſtion is not now what the private opinion of individuals concerning George Barrington may be; but whether there is, or is not, that full, clear, and unequivocal evidence, which the wiſdom of ages has eſtabliſhed as the criterion for jurors to decide by, and which ought never to be departed from in any caſe whatever. To ſtrain a point to acquit, may proceed from godlike motives; and perhaps men of the moſt vindictive temper muſt reſpect in others the benevolent impulſe; but to ſtrain a point to condemn, is repugnant to juſtice, conſcience, and humanity."

Judge Aſhhurſt ſummed up the evidence with many impartial obſervations; and the jury, after a very ſhort conference, returned a verdict, *not guilty*. Barrington bowed with his uſual addreſs, and retired from the bar. *See* (*p.* 9) & (39).

11. In Glamorganſhire an experiment has been made on the uſe of potatoes in fattening oxen. They are found to anſwer admirably well. The cattle ſoon are voraciouſly fond of them, and prefer them to hay, or any other food. They are well waſhed, and given raw. Some gentlemen have ſliced the potatoes with an engine, others give them whole. They anſwer well either way.

12. On Monday, a fire broke out at Houghton Hall, Norfolk, the ſeat of lord Orford. The North wing of that noble manſion is conſumed; and the fire would have entirely deſtroyed the whole building, if its progreſs had not been impeded by a ſtone arcade which divides the wing from the main edifice. The part deſtroyed was the place to which the valuable pictures were chiefly appropriated, moſt of which have ſuffered in the havock of the conflagration. The Cerberus group, by Locatelli, is alſo deſtroyed.

Among the other loſſes by the fire were two exquiſite tables; the compoſition was ore, which had coſt one guinea per ounce, and the workmanſhip invaluable. Four magnificent alabaſter vaſes, which ſtood in as many niches in the approach to the gallery, valued at 300l. each. The beautiful marble chimney-pieces, cornices, &c. are all reduced to a mere powder. Nothing is left ſtanding but the walls. The damage is eſtimated at 60,000l.

14. A warrant has juſt received the royal ſignature for 2611. 3s. to Brook Watſon, eſq. for the expences of a diſcovery lately made of a new method of cultivating hemp.

15. On Saturday was held a trial of the pix of monies coined at the Mint in the Tower of London, by the earl of Effingham, in preſence of the lords of his majeſty's moſt honourable privy council, at Weſtminſter-hall; when upon the ſtricteſt ſcrutiny by an able jury of goldſmiths, the coins were found fully agreeable to the ſtandard of his majeſty's exchequer.

The chancellor of the exchequer did not attend; and the lord chancellor, in his charge to the jury, ſaid, that ſo ſacred was the trial by jury, that he truſted in God the people of England would always conſider it as their indefeaſible right; and that under no pretence, either of revenue or of any thing elſe, would this great ſafeguard of their properties be trenched upon; that an infringement of this right was an act for which the longeſt life of the moſt exalted miniſter that this country ever was bleſſed with could never atone. In maintenance of theſe ſentiments, he related the evils that had been ſuffered by the country in the

the debaſement of the coin, when a trial of the pix by a jury was not thought neceſſary, previous to a maſter of the Mint receiving his *quietus*.

22. Earl Cornwallis has totally aboliſhed the ſlave trade in Bengal, and has iſſued a proclamation, declaring "That all perſons who may hereafter be found either directly or indirectly concerned therein, ſhall be proſecuted in the Supreme Court; and, if a Britiſh ſubject, ſhall, on conviction, be ſent to Europe. A reward of 100 rupees is offered for diſcovering any offender againſt the proclamation, and 50 rupees more for every perſon, of either ſex, who is delivered from ſlavery, or illegal confinement, in conſequence of ſuch diſcovery." It is publiſhed in the different languages of the country, and has been ſent to all the merchants, traders, and public offices, for their notice.

26. A general bill of the chriſtenings and burials, from Dec. 16. 1788, to Dec. 15. 1789.

Chriſtened.

Males	9341
Females	8822
In all	18163

Buried.

Males	12611
Females	10138
In all	22749

Whereof have died,

Under 2 years	6936
Between 2 and 5	2237
5 and 10	800
10 and 20	810
20 and 30	1459
30 and 40	1889
40 and 50	1893
50 and 60	1686
60 and 70	1455
70 and 80	1093
80 and 90	415
90 and 100	66
100	6
101	1
102	1
103	1
105	1

Increaſed in the burials this year 1052.

BIRTHS *in the Year* 1789.

Jan. 8. Lady of the right hon. Charles Townſend, a daughter.

14. Lady Elizabeth Yorke, a daughter.

16. Ducheſs of Northumberland, a ſon.

Feb. 23. Counteſs of Aylesford, a ſon.

28. Lady Auguſta Clavering, a daughter.

Lately, viſcounteſs Maitland, a ſon.

Ducheſs of Leinſter, a daughter.

28. Lady of ſir Egerton Leigh, bart. a daughter.

March 2. Lady Louiſa Macdonald, a ſon.

13. Lady Carysfort, a daughter.

19. Lady Theodoſia Maria Vyner, a ſon.

April 21. Lady of ſir Henry Tichborne, bart. a ſon.

May 30. Lady of ſir Geo. Cornwall, bart. a daughter.

Lady of lord Kinnaird, a ſon.

June 1. Georgiana, dowager baroneſs Middeton, wife of Edward Miller Munday, eſq. a daughter.

14. Lady of the right hon. Henry Addington a ſon.

23. Viſcounteſs Deerhurſt, a ſon.

30. Counteſs of Plymouth, a ſon.

July. 3. Viſcounteſs Galway, a ſon.

5. Lady Sarah Creſpigny, a ſon.

6. Her Catholic majeſty, a princeſs, named Maria Iſabella &c. &c.

13. Lady of J. Blackburne, eſq. M. P. for Lancaſhire, a ſon.

14. Coun

14. Countess of Salisbury, a daughter.
15. Lady Arden, a daughter.
28. Lady Melbourne, a daughter.
29. Lady of lord Saltoun, a daughter.
Aug. 4. Lady of lieutenant-gen. John Hale, a son, her one and twentieth child.
12. Countess of Glasgow, a son.
14. Lady of sir John Thorold, bart. a son.
17. Lady of Richard Aldworth Neville, esq. a son.
Sept. 8. Lady of the hon. col. Rodney, a son.
12. Countess Poulett, a son.
Lady of sir Gregory Page Turner, bart. a son.
18. Lady of the hon. Mr. Petre, a daughter.
27. Lady of the hon. Mr. Justice Wilson, a son.
Oct. 2. Lady of sir James Tylney Long, bart. a daughter.
6. Lady of sir Wm. Burrel, bart. a daughter.
8. Lady of lord Boston, a son.
12. Lady of sir Geo. Armytage, bart. a daughter.
17. Lady of the hon. James Thomas Twisleton, a daughter.
18. Countess Spencer, a son.
30. Princess Frederic of Denmark, a daughter.
Nov. 5. Lady Geo. Henry Cavendish, a son.
18. Lady Balgonie, a daughter.
Lady Mary Martin, a son.
29. Lady of the right hon. Thomas Orde, a son.
30. Lady of sir Thomas Rumbold, bart. a daughter.
Dec 2. Countess dowager Waldegrave, a daughter.
3. Lady Mary Horton, a daughter.
11. Lady of lord Napier, a daughter.
14. Viscountess Stormont, a daughter.
16. Duchess of Leeds, a son.
25. Countess of Abergavenny, a son.

MARRIAGES *in* 1789.

Jan. 4. Geo. Talbot, esq. son of the late hon. and rev. Dr. Talbot of Barton, to miss Charlotte Drake, daughter of the late rev. Dr. Drake, of Amertham.
8. Nicholas Calvert, esq. to the hon. Frances Pery, daughter of viscount Pery of Ireland.
11. Major Henry Gage, nephew and heir to lord Gage, to miss Skinner, daughter of the late general Skinner.
18. Major-gen. sir Henry Calden, bart. to miss Osborne, daughter of the late admiral Osborne.
19. Edward Hales, esq. son of sir Edward Hales, bart. to miss Lucy Darell, daughter of Henry Darell, esq.
Lately, lord Rosehill, son of the earl of Northesk, to miss Richetts, daughter of Wm. Henry Richetts, esq. of Longwood, Hants.
Charles Blois, esq. eldest son of sir John Blois, bart. to miss Clara Price, daughter of Jocelyn Price, esq. of Camblesforth, Yorkshire.
Feb 16. General Rainsford to miss Cornwallis Molyneux, daughter of the late sir More Molyneux.
17. Charles Owen Cambridge, esq. to the Hon. Mrs. Cochrane.
21. The hon. Richard Edgecumbe to lady Sophia Hobart, daughter of the earl of Buckinghamshire.
23. John Holden Struttt, esq. son to John Strutt, esq. M. P. for Malden, to lady Charlotte Fitzgerald, sister to the duke of Leinster.
24. Thomas Ivie Cooke, esq. to lady Amelia Murray.

Lately,

Lately, lord de Clifford of Ireland to miſs Mary Bourke, daughter of the archbiſhop of Tuam.

Jacob Aſtley, eſq. eldeſt ſon of ſir Edward Aſtley, bart. to miſs Browne, daughter of the late Samuel Browne, eſq. of Lynn.

March 9. Baron de Roebeck to miſs Anne Fitzpatrick, daughter of the hon. Richard Fitzpatrick.

11. Thomas Horton, jun. eſq. of Holroyde-houſe, Yorkſhire, to lady Mary Gordon, daughter of the earl of Aberdeen.

22. John, lord Lindores to miſs Jane Reeve, daughter and coheireſs of the late ſir Thomas Reeve, bart.

25. Rev. Edward Townſhend, nephew to the late Charles, viſcount Townſhend, to miſs Louiſa Milner, daughter of the late ſir William Milner, bart.

30. Nathaniel Wm. Wraxall, eſq. M. P. to miſs Laſcelles, daughter of the late Peter Laſcelles, eſq of Knights, Herts.

April 1. Henry, lord Apſley to miſs Lenox, daughter of lord George Lenox.

3. Sir Robert Sinclair, bart. to lady Madelina Gordon, daughter of the duke of Gordon.

Lately, at Utrecht, lord Aghrim, ſon of the earl of Athlone, to miſs Munter.

23. Duke of Aoſt, ſon of the king of Sardinia, to the archduchеſs Maria Thereſa.

24. Bernard Edw. Howard, eſq, of Farnham, Suffolk, to lady Elizabeth Bellaſyſe, daughter of earl Fauconberg.

Lately, capt. Barrington Price to lady Maria Bowes, daughter of the late earl of Strathmore.

May 16. Sir John Caldwall, count of the ſacred Roman empire, and bart. to miſs Harriot Meynell, daughter of the late Hugh Meynell, eſq.

20 Sir Simeon Stuart, bart. to miſs Olmius, daughter of the hon. John Luttrel Olmius.

23. Lord Leſlie, ſon of the counteſs of Rothes, to the hon. miſs Pelham, daughter of lord Pelham.

John Sullivan, eſq. of Ritechin's Park, Bucks, to miſs Henrietta Anne Barbara Hobart, daughter of the hon. George Hobart.

Edward Deſbrowe, eſq. of Walton upon Thames, to miſs Charlotte Hobart, daughter of the hon. George Hobart.

28. The hon. Mr. Talbot, brother and heir to the earl of Shrewſbury, to miſs Clifton, ſecond daughter of the late Thomas Clifton, eſq. of Leatham, Lancaſhire.

June 6. Mr. Markham, ſon of the archbiſhop of York, to miſs Sutton, daughter to ſir Richard Sutton.

9. Cholmoley Dering, eſq. ſecond ſon of ſir Edw. Dering, bart. to miſs Yates, daughter of the late ſir Joſeph Yates.

15. Lord Wm. Murray, to miſs Hodges, grand daughter of the late ſir James Hodges.

16. Tho. Lockwood, jun. eſq. to miſs Charlotte Manners Sutton, daughter of the late lord George Manners Sutton.

22. John Maxwell, eſq. ſon of the biſhop of Meath, to the hon. miſs Anneſley, daughter of viſcount Valentia.

30. The earl of Newburgh to miſs Webb, niece to ſir John Webb, bart.

Sir Wm. Foulis, bart. to miſs Mary Anne Turner.

July 1. Viſcount Powerſcourt to lady Catharine Meade, daughter to the earl of Clanwilliam.

4. Henry Lefant, eſq. to miſs Sheridan, ſiſter of Rich. Brinſley Sheridan, eſq. M. P. for Stafford

8. Fitzwilliam Barrington, eſq. ſecond ſon of ſir Fitzwilliam Barrington,

rington, bart. to miſs Marſhall, daughter of capt. Sam. Marſhall of the navy.

9. George Tierney, eſq. M. P. for Colcheſter, to miſs Miller, daughter of the late Michael Miller, eſq. of Briſtol.

10. James Gordon, jun. eſq. of Moore Park, Herts, to miſs Whitbread, daughter of Sam. Whitbread eſq.

11. George Douglas, eſq. of Cavers, to lady Grace Stewart, daughter of the earl of Moray.

Lord Wm. Ruſſell to lady Charlotte Villiers, daughter of the earl of Jerſey.

16. Sir Charles Watſon, bart. ſon of the late admiral Watſon, to miſs Juliana Copley, daughter of the late ſir Joſeph Copley, bart.

26. Charles Drummond, eſq. ſon of Robert Drummond, eſq. of St. James's ſquare, to miſs Lockwood, third daughter of the rev. Edw. Lockwood, of Portman-ſquare.

27. The hon. col. Fane, to miſs Lowe.

28. John Campbell, eſq. to lady Caroline Howard, daughter of the earl of Carliſle.

Aug 1. Wm. Lockwood, eſq. ſon of the rev. Edw. Lockwood, of Portman ſquare, to miſs Jekyll, daughter of the late Edw. Jekyll, eſq.

3. The hon. W. Finch, brother to the earl of Aylesford, to miſs Brouncher, daughter of the late Henry Brouncher, eſq. of St. Chriſtopher's.

4. James Fox Lane, eſq. to the honourable miſs Pitt, daughter of lord Rivers.

6. Charles Cameron, eſq. to lady Mary Hay, daughter of the late earl of Errol.

7. Michael Angelo Taylor, eſq. M. P. for Poole, to miſs Vane, daughter of ſir Henry Vane, bart.

Lawrence Palke, eſq. only ſon of ſir Robert Palke, bart. to lady Mary Bligh.

Lately at Lintz, in upper Luſatia, Geo. Sheldon, eſq to the counteſs dowager Daun, daughter of Charles, prince of Averſperg, and widow of Leopold count Daun, prince of Tiano, in Naples, and ſon of the celebrated marſhal count Daun.

10. Charles Stirling, eſq. of the navy, ſon of ſir Wm. Stirling, to miſs Charlotte Grote, daughter of the late Andrew Grote, eſq.

12. Sir Patrick Blake, bart. to miſs Phipps, of Bury.

13. Chriſtopher Nevil, eſq. to miſs Mann, niece to the late ſir Horatio Mann, K. B.

Lately, Wm. Butler, eſq, to the hon. miſs Maſſey, daughter of the late lord Maſſey.

Henry Cavendiſh, eldeſt ſon of the right. hon. ſir Henry Cavendiſh, bart. to miſs Cooper, niece to the biſhop of Kildare.

Lately, Thomas Liſter, eſq. M. P. for Clitheroe, to miſs Adelaide Farmer.

19. Earl of Maſſareene to madame Mary Anne Barcier, the lady that lately accompanied him from France. *See page* (25).

29. John King Daſhwood, eſq. only ſon of ſir John Daſhwood, bart. to miſs Broadhead, daughter of Theodore Broadhead, eſq. of Carſhalton.

Sept 9. Lieutenant-col. Charles Lenox to lady Charlotte Gordon, daughter of the duke of Gordon.

16. Henry Hervey Aſton, eſq. to the hon. miſs Ingram, daughter to the late lord Irvin.

26. Sylveſter Douglas, eſq. to the hon. miſs North, daughter of lord North.

Oct. 12. Robert Blencowe, eſq. of the Inner Temple, to miſs Penelope Robinſon, daughter of ſir Geo. Robinſon, bart.

17. Ed-

14 Sir William Dolben, bart. to Mrs. Scotchmer, relict of the late John Scotchmer, esq. of Bury.

17. Edward Law, esq. son of the late bishop of Carlisle, to miss Towry, daughter of Geo. Philip Towry, esq.

Nov. 4. Sir James St. Clair, to miss Bouverie, niece to the earl of Radnor.

26. Thomas Fitzherbert, esq. M. P. for Arundel, to miss Pye, daughter of the late Robert Pye, LL.D.

Dec. 15. John Brander, esq. to miss Williams, niece to the earl of Coventry.

29. Henry Hare Townshend, esq. of Bruce-castle, to miss Charlotte Lake, daughter of sir James Lake, bart.

30. Capt. Sutherland, of the navy, to miss Louisa Colebrooke, daughter of sir Geo. Colebrooke, bart.

DEATHS *in* 1789.

Jan 1. Fletcher, lord Grantley, chief justice in eyre south of Trent, and formerly speaker of the house of commons.

2. The right. hon. Charles Wolfran Cornwall, speaker of the house of commons, and chief justice in eyre north of Trent.

Sir Robert Bernard, bart.

Lady Betty Archer, sister to the late earl of Halifax, and relict of Henry Archer, esq.

Sir William Maxwell, bart.

6. Noel, lord Berwick.

Don Genaro, second son of their Sicilian majesties.

11. Sir Charles Barrow, bart. M. P. for Glouceſter.

12. Miss Campbell, daughter of the late lord William Campbell.

18. Godfrey Wentworth, esq. formerly lord-mayor of York and M. P. for that city.

Lately, James, viscount Clifdon, of Ireland.

22. The hon. Anne Herbert, relict of the hon. Nicholas Herbert.

23. Mrs. Brooke, author of Emily Montague, a novel, and other admired productions.

Lieut. gen. Wm. Wynyard.

The hon. Harriet Emma Mariana Devereux, daughter of viscount Hereford.

25. Admiral James Young.

28. Vice admiral James Gambier.

The hon. Mrs. Temple, mother of lord Palmerston.

Feb. 3. Don Carlos, youngest son of their Sicilian majesties.

7. Sir Thomas Halifax, knight, M. P. for Aylesbury, and alderman of London.

Anne, dowager viscountess Bangor.

8. Hon. Mr. Talbot, brother and presumptive heir to the earl of Shrewsbury.

14. Lady Henrietta Gordon, daughter of Alexander, second duke of Gordon.

Rev. Edw. Roger North, vicar of Harlow, in Essex, cousin to lord North.

15. Lady dowager Bamfylde, mother of sir Charles Warwick Bamfylde, bart.

Rear admiral Matthew Whitwell, younger brother to lord Howard de Walden.

17. The hon. miss Johnstone, sister to the marquis of Arundale.

22. The hon. Eleanor Courtney, sister of viscount Courtney.

25. Lady Robinson, relict of sir William Robinson, bart.

March 7. The hon. Frances Catharine Legge, daughter of lord Lewisham.

11. Alice Agar, countess of Brandon.

23. Thomas, duke of Leeds.

31. Charles,

31. Charles, prince Palatine of Birkenfeld, and duke of Bavaria.

April 2. Major-gen. John, lord Macleod, ſon of the late earl of Cromartie.

5. William Holles, viſcount Vane of Ireland, the title extinct.

7. Achmet IV. grand ſignior.

8. John, earl of Caithneſs.

9. Sir Brooke Boothby, bart.

13. Brigadier gen. Hope, lieut. gov. of the province of Quebec.

22. The youngeſt daughter of lord Vernon.

29. The hon. Mrs. Hamilton ſiſter to lord Caſtlewart.

Lately, ſir Henry Peyton, M. P. for Cambridgeſhire.

James, viſcount Lifford, lord chancellor of Ireland.

May. 6. The hon. Geo. Byron, brother to lord Byron.

12. The hon. John Wm. Townſhend, only ſurviving ſon of the late right hon. Charles Townſhend, and heir to the barony of Greenwich, on the death of his mother Carolina, counteſs dowager of Dalkeith.

13. Sir Thomas Wm. Trollope, bart.

16. Lady of Dr. Chriſtopher Wilſon, biſhop of Briſtol.

17. The hon. Emily Elizabeth Coventry, daughter of viſcount Deerhurſt.

23. The lady of Joſhua Grigſby, eſq. M. P. for Suffolk.

28. Thomas Plumer Byde, eſq. formerly M. P. for Herts.

29. Georgiana lady dowager Middleton, wife of Edward Miller Munday, eſq.

31. Lieut. gen. Mackay, commander in chief for Scotland.

June 2. At Berlin, baron Knyphauſen, an Heſſian general, in the Britiſh ſervice in the late war.

3. Lady of lord Ducie.

4. Louis Joſeph Xavier Benedict, dauphin of France.

The hon. Mrs. Vane, relict of the hon. Raby Vane, brother of the earl of Darlington.

7. Sir Stanier Porter, knight.

15. Sir John Silveſter Smyth, bart.

16. The hon. Charlotte Napier, daughter of Lord Napier.

24. In the Charter-houſe, aged 84, Mr. James Horne, formerly a merchant at Canterbury, and father-in-law to viſcount Allen of Ireland.

26. Ralph, viſcount Wicklow of Ireland.

30. Lady Frances Steuart, ſiſter of the earl of Wemyſs, and relict of the late ſir James Steuart Denham, bart.

July 1. Miſs Hannay, daughter of ſir Samuel Hannay, bart.

8. Mrs Mary Craven, mother of lord Craven.

12. James Brydges, eſq. ſon of the late hon. and rev. Henry Brydges, brother to the firſt duke of Chandos.

17. Counteſs of Lauderdale.

23. Chriſtabella, dowager viſcounteſs Saye and Sele.

27. Oſwald Moſley, eldeſt ſon of ſir John Moſley, bart.

28. Counteſs of Charleville.

29. Sir Watkin William Wynne, bart. M. P. for Denbighſhire.

30. The dowager lady Carberry.

31. Richard, viſcount Boyne.

The hon. Gen. John Fitzwilliam.

Counteſs dowager of Caſtlehaven.

Aug 3. Elizabeth, lady dowager Cathcart.

Rt. hon. ſir John Goodrick, bart. M. P. for Ripon, and formerly ambaſſador to Sweden.

8. Louiſa, marchioneſs of Landſdowne.

14. The hon. miſs Southwell, daughter of the late lord Clifford of Appleby.

Lady Mitchell, relict of ſir Andrew Mitchell, bart.

Peter

15. Peter Delmé, esq. M. P. for Morpeth.

The infant son of the right. hon. Henry Addington.

16. Lady Anne Cole, daughter of the earl of Enniskillen.

17. Mrs. Burrel, grandmother to Peter Burrel, the duchesses of Northumberland and Hamilton, and lady Lovaine.

17. James, earl of Lauderdale.

20. Lord Carlingford, only son of the earl of Tyrconnel.

25. Mrs Washington, mother of Geo. Washington esq. president of the United States.

Sept. 4. The duchess of St. Alban's.

5. Countess of Dysert.

8. Alexander Fordyce, esq.

9. Edward Hulse, esq. grandson of sir Edward Hulse, bart.

Lately, the hon. Caroline Sackville, sister to viscount Sackville.

14. Sir Robert Barker, bart. many years commander in chief of the East India company's forces in Bengal.

Lately, at Carrickfergus, the right hon. Dominic Rice.

19. Countess of Donegal.

27. Right hon. sir Thomas Miller, bart. of Glenlee, president of the court of session in Scotland.

29. James, duke of Chandos; the titles extinct, that of the barony of Chandos excepted.

Lady Margaret Graham, relict of the late Nichol Graham esq..

Oct 2. Francis, earl of Huntingdon.

9. James, earl of Abercorn.

11. Thomas Hunt, esq. M. P. for Bodmin.

12. John, earl of Stair.

14. Mrs. Lascelles, wife of general Lascelles, formerly miss Catley.

16. Lady of lord Macdonald.

17. George, earl Waldegrave.

18. Lady Mannock, relict of sir James Mannock, bart.

20. Anne, countess dowager of Albemarle.

27. George Byng, esq. M. P. in the last parliament for Middlesex.

George Anson, esq. M. P. for Lichfield.

Nov. 8. Admiral John Vaughan.

9. The hon. Mrs Howard, wife of Henry Howard, esq. and daughter of the last lord Archer.

15. Mrs. Letitia Cromwell, daughter of Mr. Richard Cromwell, grandson of Henry Cromwell, lord lieutenant of Ireland in the protectorate of his father Oliver.

18. Rear admiral sir Francis Samuel Drake, bart.

Sir John Read, bart.

Thomas Beddingfield, esq. son of sir Richard Beddingfield, bart.

Duchess of Albany, natural daughter of the late pretender.

20. Archduchess Maria Anna of Austria.

21. Sir Edward Knatchbull, bart.

26. John Elwes, esq. formerly M. P. for Berks.

Dec. Lately sir J. Lister Kaye, bart.

13. Lady of the hon. George Keith Elphinstone.

Henry James Butler, great uncle to the earl of Lanesborough.

Lately, in France, James Paine, esq. the celebrated architect.

22. George Nassau Clavering Cowper, earl Cowper.

26. Lady Forbes, relict of sir William Forbes, bart.

Lately, Alexander Irvine, esq. M. P. for East Looe.

27. John, lord Ruthven.

29. William Sotherton, esq father of the present M. P. for Pontefract.

PROMOTIONS *in* 1789.

January 5. Right hon. William Wyndham Grenville, speaker of the house of commons.

14. Right hon. Wm. Brabazon Ponſonby and Charles, lord Loftus, to be joint poſtmaſters general of Ireland.

Feb. 27. Robert Lawley, eſq. e deſt ſon of ſir Robert Lawley bart. to be equerry to the duke of Cumberland.

March 11. Earl Delawar, to be a lord of the bed-chamber.

12. Major-general Weſt Hyde, to be col. of the 20th regiment of foot.

14. General Joſeph, lord Dover, to be col. of the 1ſt regiment of life-guards.

Gen. Studholme Hodgſon, to be col. of the 11th regiment of light dragoons.

Aubrey, earl of Burford, to be major of the 34th regiment of foot.

17. Lt. general ſir Charles Grey, K. B. to be col. of the 7th regiment of dragoon guards.

Major-general Francis Laſcelles, to be col. of the 8th regiment of light dragoons.

21. Dr. Samuel Halifax, biſhop of Glouceſter, to be biſhop of St. Aſaph.

28. Dr. Euſeby Cleaver, to be biſhop of Cork and Roſs.

April 3. John, earl of Chatham, to be a privy-counſellor.

6. The hon. major Robert Hobart, to be chief ſecretary to the lord lieutenant of Ireland.

7. Hon. George Cranfield Berkeley, to be maſter ſurveyor of the ordnance.

9. Prince Edward, to be col. of the 7th regiment of foot.

10. Major-general William Gordon, to be col. of the 71ſt regiment of foot.

Rt. hon. Henry Theophilus Clements and lieut. col. Richard St. George, to be governors of the country of Leitrim.

16. Lord Robert Fitzgerald, to be ſecretary of the embaſſy to France.

The hon. major Robert Hobart, to be a privy-counſellor of Ireland.

20. Sir Robert Murray Keith, K. B. to be a privy-counſellor.

May 5. Robert, archbiſhop of Dublin, the right hon. Hugh Carleton, chief juſtice of the common pleas, and ſir Samuel Bradſtreet, one of the juſtices of the king's bench, to be commiſſioners for the keeping of the great ſeal of Ireland.

9. James, lord Malmeſbury. *See p.* (17).

15. Rt. hon. ſir Wm. Wynne, to be a privy-counſellor.

George, duke of Montague, to be lord lieutenant of Huntingdonſhire.

16. Right hon. Alleyne Fitzherbert, to be envoy extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary to the ſtates general of the United Provinces.

19. Prince William Henry, to be duke of Clarence and St. Andrews in Great Britain, and earl of Munſter in Ireland.

20. Wm. duke of Mancheſter to be lieut. col. of the Huntingdonſhire militia.

30. Dr. Richard Beadon, to be biſhop of Glouceſter.

June 1. Hon. capt. Geo. Keith Elphinſtone to be treaſurer and comptroller of the houſhold to the duke of Clarence.

2. Hon. Tho. Francis Wenman LL. D. to be profeſſor of the civil law in Oxford.

Captains ſir John Borlaſe Warren, bart, and Charles Morris Pole, and col. Wm. Dalrymple, to be grooms of the bedchamber to his royal highneſs.

Captains Hugh Clobery Chriſtian and the hon. John Rodney, and col. John Byde, to be his equerries.

The rev. Geo. Waddington, Tho. Lloyd, and Wm. Tuting, to be his chaplains.

Dr. Wm. Blane and Dr. Benjamin Moſely, to be his phyſicians, a

e latter phyſician of the houſhold.
Thomas Keate, eſq. to be ſurgeon.
4. Mountfort Longfield, eſq. to
e governor of the city of Cork.
5. Right hon. Wm. Wyndham
renville, to be ſecretary of ſtate.
Major-general Geo. Ainſlie to
e col. of the 13th regiment of foot.
6. General James Murray to be
l. of the 21ſt regiment of foot.
Lt. general lord Adam Gordon
be commander in chief of the
my in Scotland.
Lt. general James Grant, to be
overnor of Stirling caſtle.
8. Henry Addington, eſq. to be
eaker of the houſe of commons.
9. Tho. lord Sydney. to be viſ-
unt Sydney.
13. Tho. viſcount Sydney, to be
ief juſtice in eyre ſouth of Trent.
Dr. Euſeby Cleaver, biſhop of
ork and Roſs, to be biſhop of
eighlin and Ferns.
Rev. Wm. Forſter, A. M. to be
ſhop of Cork and Roſs.
16. Hon. John Trevor, envoy
traordinary to the court of Turin,
be miniſter plenipotentiary to
at court.
Rev. Tho. Poſtlethwayte, B. D.
be maſter of Trinity College,
ambridge.
Lt. col. Charles Lenox. of the
cond regiment of foot guards, to
e lieut. col. of the 35th regiment
foot.
20. Right hon. John Fitzgibbon
be lord chancellor of Ireland.
23. The duke of Clarence, and
e right. hon. Henry Addington,
be privy-counſellors.
26. Rev. John Cole and John
idlake to be chaplains to the duke
Clarence.
Mr. Geo. Rutherford and Mr.
Halliday, to be his ſurgeons extra-
rdinary.
Mr. Pratton, to be his apothe-
ry.

Mr. Robinſon, to be ſub-treaſurer.

July 6. Right Hon. John Fitzgibbon lord chancellor of Ireland, to be lord Fitzgibbon.

Major gen. Robert Preſcott, to be col. of the 28th regiment of foot.

10. Rev. John Cleathing, A. B. to be domeſtic chaplain to the duke of Glouceſter.

17. John Lloyd and John Mitford, eſqs. to be juſtices of the counties of Carmarthen, Pembroke, &c. and alſo king's council.

18. Martin Eden, eſq. envoy extraordinary at Dreſden, to be miniſter plenipotentiary there.

Charles Henry Fraſer, eſq. to be ſecretary of embaſſy at the court of Madrid, and miniſter plenipotentiary in the abſence of the ambaſſador.

Alexander Strutton, eſq. to be ſecretary of legation at the court of Vienna.

William Lindſey, eſq. the ſame at the court of Peterſburgh.

Francis James Jackſon, eſq. to be the ſame at Berlin.

Peter Holmes, Richard Townſend Herbert, Edward Fitzgerald, Samuel Hayes, and George Rawſon, eſqrs. to be commiſſioners of the ſtamp-duties in Ireland.

Charles, lord Loftus, and Charles, earl of Bellamount, poſtmaſters general of Ireland.

Edward Tighe, eſq. ſir Frederick Flood, bart. Charles Henry Coote, and John Reilley, eſqrs. with the auditor of the impreſt for the time being, to be commiſſioners of extraordinary and impreſt accounts.

20. Rev. Henry Harriſon, to be chaplain to the duke of Clarence.

Mr. Harriſon of Pall Mall, to be apothecary to his houſhold.

21. Rev. William Bingham, M. A. to be archdeacon of London.

Rev. John Wilſon, M. A. to be vicar of Catterick, Yorkſhire.

Aug. 8. Right hon. William Pitt, hon. Edward James Eliot, Richard, earl of Mornington, John Jefferies, viſcount Bayham, and Henry lord Apſley, to be lords of the treaſury,

James, Marquis of Graham, to be a privy-counſellor, and preſident of the committee for the conſideration of all matters relative to trade and foreign plantations in the abſence of lord Hawkeſbury.

12. Henry, earl of Clanrickarde to be marquis of Clanrickarde.

Randal William, earl of Antrim to be marquis of Antrim.

George, earl of Tyrone to be marquis of the county of Waterford.

Wills, earl of Hillſborough to be marquis of Downſhire.

Francis Charles, viſcount Glerawly to be earl Anneſley.

William, viſcount Enniſkillen to be earl of Enniſkillen.

John, viſcount Erne, to be earl Erne.

John Joſhua, lord Carysfort to be earl of Carysfort.

John, lord Earlsfort to be viſcount Clonmell.

John Newport, Robert Bateſon Harvey, Samuel Hayes, and Robert Hodſon Barry, eſqrs. to be baronets.

Arthur Wolfe, eſq. to be a privy-counſellor and attorney-general.

John Toler, eſq. to be ſolicitor-general.

John, earl of Glandore and John Joſhua, earl of Carysfort, to be guardians and keepers of the rolls.

All theſe creations and appointments of the kingdom of Ireland.

Aug. 15. Joſeph Ewart, eſq. envoy extraordinary at Berlin, to be miniſter plenipotentiary at that court.

John, earl of Chatham, Richard Hopkins, eſq. Charles George, lord Arden, Samuel, lord Hood, ſir Francis Drake, bart. Robert, viſcount Belgrave, and the hon. John Thomas Townſhend, to be lords of the admiralty.

Conſtantine John, lord Mulgrave, and James, marquis of Graham, to be paymaſters-general of the forces.

18. James, earl of Saliſbury, to be marquis of Saliſbury.

Thomas, viſcount Weymouth, to be marquis of Bath.

George, viſcount Mount Edgcumbe and Valletort, to be earl of Mount Edgcumbe.

Hugh, lord Forteſcue, to be earl Forteſcue and viſcount Ebrington.

19. Hon. Joſeph Hewit, to be ſecond ſerjeant at law in Ireland.

Henry Lawes, earl of Carhampton to be lieutenant-general of the ordnance in Ireland.

22. William Henry, earl of Clermont, to be gentleman of the bedchamber to the prince of Wales.

Lieutenant-general William Auguſtus Pitt, commander in chief with the commander in chief for the time being, the right hon. James Cuffe, Ponſonby More, William Handcock, Robert Landgriſhe, colonel David Dundas, adjutant-general, the hon. George Jocelyn Frederick French, and the hon. Henry Pomeroy, to be commiſſioners of the barracks in Ireland.

26. Thomas Byard, eſq. captain in the navy, knighted.

29. George Evelyn, viſcount Falmouth, to be chief juſtice in eyre North of Trent.

Sept. 7. Mr. Thomas Wood to be inſpector of lottery offices.

9. Right hon. Hugh Carleton, chief juſtice of the common pleas in Ireland to be baron Carleton of Ireland.

Right hon. William Eden to be baron Auckland of Ireland.

Right hon. Luke Gardiner to be baron Mountjoy, of Ireland.

Right hon. Robert Stewart to be baron Londonderry of Ireland.

Sir John Browne, bart. to be ba-
n Kilmaine, of Ireland.
Sir Nicholas Lawleſs, bart. to be
ıron Cloncurry of Ireland.
Henry Gore, eſq. to be baron
nnaly of Ireland.
Sir Sampſon Eardley, bart. to
e baron Eardley, of Ireland.
Sept. 12. Lord Walſingham and
ıe earl of Weſtmoreland to be
oſtmaſters-general.
Earl of Cheſterfield to be maſter
f the mint.
Timothy Caſwall, eſq. to be
ommiſſioner of exciſe.
John Armſtrong and John Agar
ſqs. to be privy-counſellors of
reland.
13. Andrew Snape Douglas, eſq.
nighted.
14. Rev. George Mangles to be
haplain to the prince of Wales.
18. Thomas Loftus, eſq. to be
rincipal ſtorekeeper of the ord-
ance of Ireland.
Robert Wynne, eſq. to be clerk
f the deliveries.
John Armit eſq. to be ſecretary to
ıe board of ordnance.
20. John Joſhua, lord Carysfort,
o be a privy counſellor of Ireland.
26. Sir Francis Vincent, bart.
o be reſident at Venice.
Lieutenant-general John Doug-
as to be colonel of the 5th regiment
f dragoon-guards.
Alexander, earl of Balcarras, to be
olonel of the 63d regiment of foot.
Oct. 7. Duke of Dorſet, to be
ord ſteward of the houſhold.
14. John, earl of Weſtmoreland,
o be a privy counſellor of Great
Britain, and lord lieutenant of Ire-
and.
Cecil Hamilton, daughter of the
ıon. and rev. George Hamilton,
M. A. canon of Windſor, deceaſed,
rother of the late James, Earl of
Abercorn, to have precedence as
the daughter of an earl of the king-
dom of Great Britain.
28. Aſhton Warner Byam, eſq. at-
torney-general of Grenada, knighted.
30. Lieutenant-colonel Richard
St. George to be inſpector of re-
cruiting parties in Ireland.
31. Ilay Campbell, eſq. of Suc-
coth, to be preſident of the college
of juſtice in Scotland.
Robert Dundas, eſq. of Arniſton,
to be lord advocate of Scotland.
Robert Blair, eſq. ſolicitor for
Scotland.
Nov. 2. Major Francis Groſe to be
lieutenant-governor of New South
Wales.
3. John Laforey, eſq. of Antigua,
a bart.
13. John Wm. Roſe, eſq. record-
er of London, to be ſerjeant at law.
17. Earl Fauconberg to be colo-
nel of the North York militia.

SHERIFFS *appointed for the Year* 1789.

Berkſhire — Edward Golden, of Maiden Earley, eſq.
Bedfordſhire — Samel Boyden, of Milton Erneſs, eſq.
Bucks — Richard Davenport, of Great Marlow, eſq.
Camb. and Hunt. Thomas Pan ton, of Fen Ditton, eſq.
Cheſhire — Sir John Chetwode of Agden, bart.
Cornwall — Robert Lovell Gwatkin, of Kiliow, eſq.
Cumberland — Thomas Denton, of Warnal-hall, eſq.
Derbyſhire — Martin Farnell, of Coton in the Elmes, eſq.
Devonſhire — Montague Edmund Parker, of Whiteway, eſq.
Dorſetſhire — Frederick Thomas Wentworth, of Henbury, eſq.
Eſſex — Thomas Fowell Buxton, of Earl's Colne, eſq.

Glouceſterſhire—George Miller, of Ozleworth, eſq.
Herefordſhire—William Taylor, of Tillington, eſq.
Hertfordſh.—Drummond Smith, of Tring Park, eſq.
Kent—John Cartier, of Bedgbury, eſq.
Leiceſterſhire—Joſiah Cockſhutt, of Oſbaldiſton, eſq.
Lincolnſhire—Lewis Dymoke, of Screveliby, eſq.
Monmouthſhire—Thomas Lewis, of Saint Peer, eſq.
Norfolk—Brampton Gurdon Dillingham, of Letton, eſq.
Northamptonſhire—Rich. Hanwell, of Long Buckby, eſq.
Northumberland—Robert Liſle, of Acton, eſq.
Nottinghamſhire—John Chamberlin, of Sutton Bonnington, eſq.
Oxfordſhire—John Blackall, jun. of Haſley, eſq.
Rutlandſhire—Benjamin Cramp, of Oakham, eſq.
Shropſhire—Joſeph Oldham, of Cainham, eſq.
Somerſetſhire—George Templar, of Shapwick, eſq.
Staffordſhire—Thomas Leverſage Fowler, of Penford, eſq.
Suffolk—Nathaniel Lee Acton, of Livermore, eſq.
County of Southampton—William Harris, of New Arlesford, eſq.
Surrey—Thomas Sutton, of Eaſt Moleſey, eſq.
Suſſex—Sir Ferdinando Poole, of Lewes, bart.
Warwickſhire—Thomas Ward, of Moreton Morrell, eſq.
Worceſterſhire—John Spooner, of Leigh-court, eſq
Wiltſhire—Thomas Grove, of Fern, eſq.
Yorkſhire—Walter Fawkes, of Farnley-hall, eſq.

SOUTH WALES.

Carmarthen—Walter Thomas, of Wainrhydod, eſq.
Pembroke—George Roche, of Clareſton, eſq.
Cardigan—John Jones, of Derry Ormond, eſq.
Glamorgan—John Lewellyn, of Welch St. Donats, eſq.
Brecon—Jeffreys Wilkins, of Brecon, eſq.
Radnor—Thomas Duppa, of Knighton, eſq.

NORTH WALES.

Angleſea—John Williams, of Nantannog, eſq.
Carnarvon—William Hughes, of Nantcall, eſq.
Denbighſhire—Charles Brown of Marchwiel, eſq.
Flint—Richard Wilding, of Preſtatyn, eſq.
Merioneth—Edward Lloyd, of Palan, eſq.
Montgomery—Francis Lloyd, of Domgay, eſq.

PUBLIC PAPERS.

List of the Division in the House of Commons, on Tuesday, December 16, 1788, on the Second Resolution, moved that Day, by the Right Honourable William Pitt.

London, ALDERMAN WATSON, in the Chair.

	For the question.	*Against the Question.*
Abingdon,		E. L. Loveden,
Agmondesham,	Wm. Drake, jun. Esq.	
St. Alban's,	Wm. Grimston Esq.	Wm. Cha. Sloper, Esq.
Aldborough, Suffolk,		P. C. Crespigny, Esq.
		Samuel Salt, Esq.
Aldborough, Yorksh.	Sir R. Pepper Arden	
	J. Galley Knight, Esq.	
Andover,	Wm. Fellowes, Esq.	
	Benj. Lethieullier, Esq.	
Anglesea,	Nicholas Bayley, Esq.	
Appleby,	Hon. J. L. Gower	
Arundel,		Tho. Fitzherbert Esq.
		Rich. Beckford, Esq.
Ashburton,	Robert Mackreth, Esq.	
Aylesbury,	Sir Thomas Hallifax	Wm. Wrightson, Esq.
Barnstaple,	William Devaynes, Esq.	John Cleveland, Esq.
Bath,	Lord Viscount Bayham	Abel Moysey, Esq.
Beaumaris,	Sir H. Williams, Bart.	
Bedfordshire,		Earl of Upper Ossory
		Hon. Andrew St. John
Bedford,	Samuel Whitbread, Esq.	William Colhoun, Esq.
Bedwin,	Marquis of Graham	
	Lieut. col. Manners	
Beeralston,		Lord Viscount Fielding
Berkshire,	Geo. Vansittart, Esq.	
	Hen. James Pye, Esq.	
Berwick,		Sir general Vaughan
		Gilbert Elliot, Bart.
Beverley,	Sir J. Pennyman Bart.	
Bewdley,	Lord Westcote	
Bishop's Castle,		William Clive, Esq.
		Henry Strachey Esq.
Blechingly,		John Kenrick, Esq.
		Sir Rob. Clayton, Bart.
Bodmyn,		Sir Jn. Morshead, Bart.
		Thomas Hunt, Esq.
Boroughbridge,	Sir Rich. Sutton, Bart.	Viscount Palmerston

	For the Queſtion.	*Againſt the Queſtion.*
Boſſiney,	Matthew Montagu, Eſq.	
	Hon. Charles Stuart	
Boſton,		Sir Peter Burrell
Brackley,	Colonel Egerton	
	Timothy Caſwell, Eſq.	
Bramber,	Sir H. G. Calthorpe, Bt.	
	Major Hobart	
Breconſhire,		Sir Charles Gould
Brecon,		Charles Gould, Eſq.
Bridgenorth,	J. H. Browne, Eſq.	Tho. Whitmore, Eſq.
Bridgwater,	Sir Alex. Hood, K. B.	
	Robert Thornton, Eſq.	
Bridport,		Thomas Scott, Eſq.
		Charles Sturt, Eſq.
Briſtol,	Matthew Brickdale, Eſq.	
Buckinghamſhire,	Rt. Hon. W. W. Grenville	
Buckingham,	Edmund Nugent, Eſq.	
Callington,	John Call, Eſq.	
Calne,	Joſeph Jekyll Eſq.	
Cambridgeſhire,	Philip Yorke, Eſq.	
Cambridge Univerſ.	Rt Hon. Wm. Pitt	
	Lord Euſton	
Cambridge, Town of	Francis Dickens, Eſq.	
Camelford,		James Macpherſon, Eſq.
		Sir Sam. Hannay, Bart.
Canterbury,	George Gipps, Eſq.	
	Charles Robinſon, Eſq.	
Cardiff,		Sir H. Mackworth, Bart.
Cardiganſhire,		Earl of Liſburne
Cardigan,		John Campbell, Eſq.
Carliſle,	John Chriſtian, Eſq.	Rowl. Stephenſon, Eſq.
Caermarthen,		John G. Phillips,
Caſtle Riſing,	Walter Sneyd, Eſq.	
	Charles Boone, Eſq.	
Cheſhire,	Sir R. S. Cotton, Bart.	John Crewe, Eſq.
Cheſter,	Tho. Groſvenor, Eſq.	
	R. W. Bootle, Eſq.	
Chriſtchurch,		Sir John Frederick, Bart.
		Hans Sloane, Eſq.
Chicheſter,	Geo. W. Thomas, Eſq.	
	Tho. Steele, Eſq.	
Chippingham,	George Fludyer, Eſq.	James Dawkins, Eſq.
Cirenceſter,	Lord Apſley	
	Richard Maſter, Eſq.	
Clitheroe,		Thomas Liſter, Eſq.
		John Lee, Eſq.
Cockermouth,		J. C. Statterthwaite, Eſq.
		Humph. Senhouſe Eſq.

Colch ſter,

	For the Queſtion.	*Againſt the Queſtion.*
Colcheſter,		Sir Robert Smyth, Bart.
Corff Caſtle,	John Bond, jun. Eſq.	
	Henry Bankes, Eſq.	
Cornwall,	Sir Wm. Lemon, Bart.	Sir W. Moleſworth, Bt.
Coventry,	Sir Samp. Gideon, Bart.	
	John Wilmot, Eſq.	
Cricklade,	Robert Nicholas, Eſq.	J. Walker Heneage, Eſq.
Cumberland,		Sir Hen. Fletcher. Bart.
		Wm. Lowther, Eſq.
Dartmouth,	Richard Hopkins, Eſq.	
Denbbigſhire,		Sir W. W. Wynne, Bart.
Denbigh,		Rich. Myddleton, Eſq.
Derbyſhire,		Lord Geo. Cavendiſh
		Edw. M. Mundy, Eſq.
Derby,		Lord G. A. H. Cavendiſh
		Edward Coke, Eſq.
Devonſhire,	John Rolle, Eſq.	John Pol. Baſtard, Eſq.
Dorſetſhire,	Francis J. Browne, Eſq.	
Dorcheſter,		Hon. George Damer
		Wm. Ewer, Eſq.
Dover,	Robert Preſton, Eſq.	
Downton,	Robert Shaftoe, Eſq.	Hon. W. S. Conway
Droitwich,		Hon. Andrew Foley
		Edw. Winnington, Eſq.
Dunwich,	Barne Barne, Eſq.	Sir G. W. Vanneck, Bt.
Durham, County of		Sir John Eden, Bart.
Durham,		John Tempeſt, Eſq.
		Wm. H. Lambton, Eſq.
Eaſt Looe,	Alexander Irvine, Eſq.	
	Lord Viſcount Belgrave,	
St. Edmond's Bury,	Lord Charles Fitzroy,	Sir Charles Davers, Bart.
Eſſex,	Tho. B. Bramſton, Eſq.	
Eveſham,	Sir John Ruſhout, Bart.	
	Cha. W. B. Rouſe, Eſq.	
Exeter,	John Baring, Eſq.	Sir C. W. Bampfylde, Bart.
Eye,	General Philipſon	
	Major-general Bathurſt	
Flintſhire,		Sir Roger Moſtyn, Bart.
Flint,	Major W. Williams,	
Fowey,	Philip Raſhleigh, Eſq.	
	Hon. Rich. Edgecumbe	
Gatton,	James Fraſer, Eſq.	
St. Germain's,	J. James Hamilton, Eſq.	
	Samuel Smith, Eſq.	
Glamorganſhire,	Charles Edwin, Eſq.	
Glouceſterſhire,	Hon. Capt. Berkeley	
	Thomas Maſter, Eſq.	
Glouceſter,		John Webb, Eſq.
Grampound,	Francis Baring, Eſq.	

Grantham,

	For the Question.	*Against the Question.*
Grantham,	George Sutton, Esq.	
East Grimsby,		John Harrison, Esq.
		Dudley Long, Esq.
East Grinstead,	George Medley, Esq.	
Guildford,	Hon. Thowas Onslow	Hon. general Norton
Hampshire,	Robert Thistlethwaite, Esq.	Jervoise C. Jervoise, Esq.
Harwich,	John Robinson, Esq.	
Heslemere,		John B. Garforth, Esq.
		John Lowther, Esq.
Hastings,	John Stanley, Esq.	
	John Dawes, Esq.	
Helston,	James B. Burgess, Esq.	Roger Wilbraham, Esq.
Herefordshire,	Rt. hon. Tho. Harley	Sir Geo. Cornwall, Bt.
Hereford,		John Scudamore, Esq.
		James Walwyn, Esq.
Hertfordshire,	Viscount Grimston,	Wm. Plumer, Esq.
Hertford,	Baron Dimsdale	
	John Calvert, Esq.	
	Lionel Darell, Esq.	
Heydon,		W. P. A'Court, Esq.
Heytesbury,		Right Hon. F. Montagu
Higham Ferrers,	Sir C. F. Ratcliffe, Bt.	William Evelyn, Esq.
Highworth,	Wm. Egerton, Esq.	
Hindon,	Rt. hon Sir G. Yonge, K. B.	Sir George Collier
Honiton,		
	Jer. Crutchley, Esq.	
Horsham,	Phil. Metcalf, Esq.	
	Viscount Hinchinbroke,	Earl Ludlow
Huntingdonshire,		Sir Walter Rawlinson
Huntingdon,		Jn. Willet Payne, Esq.
Ilchester,	Benjam. Bond Hopkins, Esq.	
	George Sumner, Esq.	
	C. Alex. Cricket, Esq.	William Middleton, Esq.
Ipswich,	William Praed, Esq.	
St. Ives,	Hon. Charles Marsham	Filmer Honeywood, Esq.
Kent,		Hon. Horatio Walpole
King's Lynn,		
Kingston, upon Hull,	Sam. Thornton, Esq.	
	W. Spencer Stanhope, Esq.	
Knaresborough,		Viscount Duncannon,
Lancashire,	John Blackburne, Esq.	Thomas Stanley, Esq.
Lancaster,		Sir Geo. Warren, K. B.
		Ab. Rawlinson, Esq.
Launceston,	Lord Arden	Sir John Swinburne, Bt.
Leicestershire,	John Peach Hungerford, Esq.	
	Wm. Pochin, Esq.	
Leicester,	Colonel Macnamara	
	Cha. Lor. Smith, Esq.	*Leaminster,*

	For the Queſtion.	*Againſt the Queſtion.*
Leominſter,	John Hunter, Eſq.	
	Penn A. Curzon, Eſq.	
Leſkeard,	Hon. Edw. Jas. Eliot	
	Hon. John Eliot	
Leſtwithiel,	John Tho. Ellis, Eſq.	Sir John Sinclair, Bart.
Lewes,	Thomas Kemp, Eſq.	Hon. Hen. Pelham
Lincolnſhire,		Sir John Thorold, Bart.
		C. Anderſon Pelham Eſq.
Lincoln,	Jn. F. Cawthorne, Eſq.	Hon. R. L. Saville
Litchfield,		George Anſon Eſq.
Liverpool,	Bamber Gaſcoyne, Eſq.	Lord Penrhyn
London,	Sir Watkin Lewes,	Nath. Newnham, Eſq.
		John Sawbridge, Eſq.
Ludlow,		Lord Clive
		Rich. P. Knight, Eſq.
Luggerſhall,	Geo. Aug. Selwyn, Eſq.	
	Nath. W. Wraxall, Eſq.	
Lyme Regis,	Hon. Thomas Fane	
	Hon. Henry Fane	
Lymington,	Robert Colt, Eſq.	
	George Roſe, Eſq.	
Maidſtone,	Matthew Bloxam, Eſq.	Clement Taylor, Eſq.
Malden,	John Strutt, Eſq.	Sir Peter Parker, Bart.
Malmeſbury,		Viſcount Melbourne
		Viſcount Maitland
Malton,		Rt. Hon. Edm. Burke
		Wm. Weddell, Eſq.
Marlborough,	Earl of Courtown	
	Sir Philip Hailes, Bart.	
Marlow,	Sir Thomas Rich, Bart.	
St. Mawes,	Hugh Boſcawen, Eſq.	William Clayton, Eſq.
	William Young, Eſq.	
St. Michael,	Chriſto. Hawkings, Eſq.	
Midhurſt,	Hen. Drummond, Eſq.	David Howell, Eſq.
Middleſex,	Wm. Mainwaring, Eſq.	Edward Cotsford, Eſq.
Milbourn Port,	Lord Muncaſter	Colonel W. Popham
Minehead,	Robert Wood, Eſq.	
Monmouthſhire,	Major-general Rooke	John Morgan, Eſq.
Monmouth,	Marquis of Worceſter	
Montgomeryſhire,		Wm. Moſtyn Owen, Eſq.
Montgomery,		Whitſhed Keene, Eſq.
Morpeth,		Peter Delmé, Eſq.
		Sir James Erſkine, Bart.
Newark,	Lieut.col. John Sutton	
	Lord Mulgrave	
Newcaſtle under Line,	Sir Archib. Macdonald	
	Richard Vernon, Eſq.	

Newcaſtle

	For the Question.	*Against the Question.*
Newcastle upon Tyne,	Charles Brandling, Esq	Sir M. W. Ridley, Bt.
Newport, Cornwall,		Sir John Miller, Bt.
Newport, Hants,	Hon. John Townshend	Edw. Rushworth, Esq.
Newton, Lancashire,	Thomas Brooke, Esq.	Tho. P. Leigh, Esq.
Newton, Hants,	John Barrington, Esq.	
	Mark Gregory, Esq.	
Norfolk,	Sir John Wodehouse, Bt.	Sir Edward Astley, Bt.
Northallerton,	Henry Peirse, Esq.	
	Edwin Lascelles, Esq.	
Northamptonshire,	Sir Jas. Langham, bart.	Tho. Powys, Esq.
Northumberland,		Sir Wm. Middleton, Bt.
		Charles Grey, Esq.
Norwich,	Hon. Hen. Hobart	Rt. Hon. W. Wyndham
Nottinghamshire,		Lord E. C. Cavendish Bentinck
		C. Meadows Pierrepoint, Esq.
Nottingham,	Robert Smith, Esq.	Dan. P. Coke, Esq.
Oakhampton,	Humphrey Minchin, Esq.	Viscount Malden
Orford,		Hon. G. Seymour Conway
Oxfordshire,		Lord Charles Spencer
Oxford,		Lord Robert Spencer
		Hon. Peregrine Bertie
Oxford University,	Sir Wm. Dolben, Bart.	Francis Page, Esq.
Pembroke,		Hugh Owen, Esq.
Penryn,		Sir John St. Aubyn, Bt.
Peterborough,		Richard Benyon, Esq.
		Hon. Lionel Damer
Petersfield,		Viscount Downe,
		Wm. Joliffe, Esq.
Plymouth,	Robert Fanshaw, Esq.	John Macbride, Esq.
Plympton,	John Stephenson, Esq.	
	John Pardoe, jun. Esq.	
Pontefract,	John Smyth, Esq.	
	Wm. Sotherton, Esq.	
Poole,	Wm. M. Pitt, Esq.	Mich. A. Taylor, Esq.
Portsmouth,	Hon. W. Cornwallis	Sir H. Featherstone, Bt.
Preston,	Sir H. Houghton, Bart.	Rt. hon. Gen. Burgoyne
Queensborough,	George Bowyer, Esq.	
	John Aldridge, Esq.	
Radnorshire,	Thomas Johnes, Esq.	
Reading,	Francis Annesly, Esq.	
	Richard A. Neville, Esq.	
East Retford,	Earl of Lincoln	Wharton Amcotts, Esq.
Richmond,		Earl of Inchiquin
		Sir Grey Cooper, Bart.
Rippon,		Wm. Lawrence, Esq.
Rochester,	Sir C. Middleton, Bart	

New

	For the Question.	*Against the Question.*
New Romney,	John Henniker, Esq.	
	Rich. J. Sullivan, Esq.	
Rutlandshire,	G. B. Brudenell, Esq.	Ger. Noel Edwards, Esq.
Rye,	Rt. hon. C. W. Cornwall, *Speaker*	Wm. Dickenson, Esq.
Rvegate,	Wm. Bellingham, Esq.	
	Reginald Pole Carew, Esq.	
Salop,	John Kynaston, Esq.	
Saltash,		Major Lemon
Sandwich,	Philip Stevens, Esq.	
	Charles Brett, Esq.	
New Sarum,	Hon. W. H. Bouverie	William Hussey, Esq.
Old Sarum,	Rt. hon. J. C. Villiers	
	George Hardinge, Esq.	
Scarborough,	Earl of Tyrconnell	
	Geo. Obaldeston, Esq.	
Seaford,		Sir Godfrey Webster
Shaftesbury,	Hans W. Mortimer, Esq.	
	John Drummond, Esq.	
Shoreham,	John Peachey, Esq.	
Shrewsbury,	John Hill, Esq.	
Somersetshire,	Edw. Phelips, Esq.	
Southampton,	John Fleming, Esq.	
	James Amyatt, Esq.	
Southwark,	Henry Thornton, Esq.	
	Paul Le Mesurier, Esq.	
Staffordshire,	Lord Gower	
	Sir Edw. Littleton, Bart.	
Stafford,		Hon. Edw. Monckton
		R. B. Sheridan, Esq.
Stamford,	Sir George Howard, K. B.	
	Henry Cecil, Esq.	
Steyning,	Hon. Rich. Howard	
Stockbridge,	Jas. Gordon, jun. Esq.	T. Boothby Parkins, Esq.
Sudbury,	William Smith, Esq.	
	John Langston, Esq.	
Suffolk,	Sir John Rous, Bart.	
	Joshua Grigby, Esq.	
Surrey,	Sir Jos. Mawbey, Bart.	Hon. William Norton
Sussex,	Lord George Lenox	Hon. Thomas Pelham
Tamworth,	John Calvert, jun. Esq.	John Courtney, Esq.
Tavistock,		Rt. Hon. H. Fitzpatrick
		Lord John Russel
Taunton,	Alexander Popham, Esq.	
	Sir Benj. Hammett	
Thetford,	Sir Charles Kent, Bart.	
	George Jennings, Esq.	
Thirsk,	Sir G. P. Turner, Bart.	Robert Vyner, Esq.

Tiverton,

	For the Queſtion.	*Againſt the Queſtion.*
Tiverton,	Hon. Dudley Ryder	
Totneſs,	Hon. Colonel Phipps	
Tregony,		Robert Kingſmill, Eſq.
		Hon. Hugh Conway
Truro,	Henry Addington, Eſq.	
	Colonel Boſcawen,	
Wallingford,	Sir Francis Sykes, Bart.	
Wareham,	Thomas Farrer, Eſq.	John Calcraft, Eſq.
Warwickſhire,	Sir Robert Lawley, Bt.	
	Sir Geo. A. W. Shuckburgh, Bart.	
Warwick,		Robert Ladbroke, Eſq.
Wells,	Clement Tudway, Eſq.	
Wendover,		Robert Burton, Eſq.
		John Ord, Eſq.
Wenlock,		Sir H. Bridgeman, Bart.
		George Forreſter, Eſq.
Weobly,	Sir John Scott,	
	Hon. Thomas Thynne	
Weſtbury,	Samuel Eſtwick, Eſq.	
	John Madocks, Eſq.	
Weſt Looe,	Major John Scott	
	James Adams, Eſq.	
Weſtminſter,		Rt. Hon. C. J. Fox
		Lord John Townſhend
Weſtmoreland,		Sir M. Le Fleming, Bt.
		John Lowther, Eſq.
Weymouth and Melcomb Regis,		Rt. Hon. Welbore Ellis
		John Purling Eſq.
Whitchurch,	William Selwyn, Eſq.	Viſcount Middleton
Wigan,		John Cotes, Eſq.
		Orlando Bridgeman, Eſq.
Wilton,	Lord Herbert	
Winchelſea,		John Neſbitt, Eſq.
Wincheſter,	Richard Gamon, jun. Eſq.	Henry Penton, Eſq.
Windſor,	Earl of Mornington	
Woodſtock,	Sir H. W. Daſhwood, Bt.	
	Francis Burton Eſq.	
Worceſterſhire,		Hon. Edw. Foley
Worceſter,	Samuel Smith, Eſq.	
Wootton Baſſett,		Hon. Col. North
		Hon. Robert S. Conway
Chipping Wycombe,	Robert Waller, Eſq.	
Yarmouth, Norfolk,	Sir John Jervis, K. B.	
	Henry Beaufoy, Eſq.	
Yarmouth, Hants,		Phllip Francis, Eſq.
		Tho. Jer. Clarke, Eſq.
Yorkſhire,	Henry Duncombe, Eſq.	
	Wm. Wilberforce, Eſq.	
York,	Rich. Slater Milnes, Eſq.	Lord Galway

SCOTLAND.

SCOTLAND.

	For the Question.	*Against the Question.*
Aberdeenshire,		George Skeene, Esq.
Aberdeen, &c.		Sir Dav. Carnegie, Bart.
Argyleshire,	Lord F. Campbell	
Banffshire,	Sir James Duff, Bart.	
Berwickshire,	Pat. Home, Esq.	
Bute and Caithness,		Col. J. Stuart
Clackmannan,	Burnet Abercrombie, Esq.	
Craill, Pittenweem, &c.		John Anstruther, Esq.
Cupar, Dundee &c.		George Dempster, Esq.
Dumbarton, Glasgow, &c.	Ilay Campbell, Esq.	
Dumfriesshire,		Sir Robert Laurie, Bart.
Edinburghshire,	Rt. Hon. Henry Dundas	
Edinburgh,	Sir Adam Ferguson, Bt.	
Elginshire,	Earl of Fife	
Fifeshire,	Colonel Wemyss	
Forfarshire,	Archib. Douglas, Esq.	
Haddingtonshire,	John Hamilton, Esq.	
Inverness-shire,	Lord Wm. Gordon	
Inverness,	Sir Hector Monro, K. B.	
Irvine, Inverary, &c.	Sir A. Edmonston, Bart.	
Kincardineshire,	R. Allardice Barclay, Esq.	
Kintore, Banff, &c.		Wm. Adam, Esq.
Kirkcudbright Stewartry,	Sir Chas. Preston, Bart.	Alexander Stewart, Esq.
Kinghorn, &c.	Sir Jas. S. Denham	
Lanarkshire,		
Lauder,		Colonel Fullarton
Linlithgowshire,		Sir William A. Cunynghame, Bart.
Nairnshire,	Alexander Brodie, Esq.	
Orkney, &c.		Colonel Dundas
Peebleshire,	David Murray, Esq.	
Perthshire,	Hon. General Murray	
Renfrewshire,		John Shaw Stewart, Esq.
Ross-shire,		F. H. Mackenzie, Esq.
Roxburghshire,	Sir George Douglas, Bt.	
Selkirkshire,	Mark Pringle, Esq.	
Selkirk, &c.	Major Moore	
Stirlingshire,		Sir Tho. Dundas, Bart.
Sutherlandshire,	Lieut. General Grant	
Wigtonshire,	Andrew M'Dowall, Esq.	

Paired

Paired off for the queſtion.

Buckingham,	Right Hon. James Grenville
Calne,	Right Hon. Iſacc Barré
Kirkwall, &c.	Charles Roſs, Eſq.
Shropſhire,	Sir Richard Hill, Bart.

Paired off againſt the Queſtion.

Banbury,	Lord North
Dumbartonſhire,	Hon. G. Keith Elphinſtone
Wilton,	Rt. Hon. W. G. Hamilton
Winchelſea,	William Nedham, Eſq.

On Monday the 22d, in favour of the Third Reſolution, propoſed by the Right Honourable William Pitt, and againſt the amendment propoſed thereto by Mr. Dempſter.

	For the original Motion.	*Againſt the original Motion.*
Beverley,	Sir C. Sykes, Bart.	
Briſtol,	Henry Cruger, Eſq.	
Caernarvonſhire,	John Parry, Eſq.	
Dartmouth,	Edmund Baſtard, Eſq.	
Devizes,	Henry Addington, Eſq.	
Heidon,	Edward Bearcroft, Eſq.	
Heydon,	Wm. Chaytor, Eſq.	
Haverfordweſt,	Lord Kenſington	
Ipſwich,	William Middleton, Eſq.	
Litchfield,	Thomas Gilbert, Eſq.	
Orford,		Lord Beauchamp
Oxfordſhire,	Lord Wenman	
St. Ives,	Richard Barwell, Eſq.	
Saltaſh,	Charles Ambler, Eſq.	
Steyning,	Sir J. Honeywood, Bart.	
Tiverton,	Sir John Duntz, Bart.	
Worceſterſhire,	Wm. Lygon, Eſq.	
Windſor,	P. P. Powney, Eſq.	

The following Gentlemen have been prevented by illneſs from attending the Houſe during the preſent Seſſion.

Cambridgeſhire,	Sir H. Peyton, Bart.
Callington,	Paul Orchard, Eſq.
Rocheſter,	Nathaniel Smith, Eſq.
Somerſetſhire,	Sir J. Trevelyan, Bart.
Minehead,	J. F. Luttrell, Eſq.
Merionethſhire,	E. L. Vaughan, Eſq.

Left

List of the Division in the House of Lords, on Friday the 26th of December, 1788, on the Question of the Amendment to the Resolution moved by Lord Rawdon.

CONTENTS.

Dukes
York
Cumberland
Norfolk
Bedford
Portland
Devonshire
Northumberland
Marquis
Townshend
Earls
Derby
Huntingdon
Suffolk
Carlisle
Sandwich
Stamford
Exeter
Peterborough
Shaftesbury
Plymouth
Jersey
Scarborough
Cholmondeley
Buckinghamshire
Fitzwilliam
Hertford
Ilchester
Spencer
Abergavenny
Viscounts
Hereford
Bolingbroke
Maynard
Hampden
Lords
Audley
St. John
Clifton (Earl of Darnley)
Teynham
Craven
Boyle (Earl of Cork)
Hay (Earl of Kinnoul)
Cadogan
Monson
Chedworth
Ponsonby (Earl of Besborough)
Walpole
Stawell
Pelham
Egmont
Vernon
Cardiff
Hawke
Foley
Loughborough
Portchester
Rodney
Rawdon
Douglas (Duke of Queensbuy)
Malmesbury

SCOTCH PEERS.

Marquis
Lothian
Earls
Eglinton
Cassilis
Selkirk
Breadalbane
Viscount
Stormont.
Lord
Kinnaird

Bishops
Winchester
Landaff
Bristol.

NOT-CONTENTS.

Dukes
Richmond
Beaufort
St. Alban's
Brandon
Chandos
Bridgewater
Newcastle
Montagu
Marquisses
Stafford
Lansdowne
Earls
Salisbury
Denbigh
Westmorland
Winchelsea
Chesterfield
Essex
Doncaster
Abingdon
Gainsborough
Rochford
Coventry
Poulett
Oxford
Aylesford
Sussex
Stanhope
Macclesfield
Ker (D. of Roxburgh)
Waldegrave
Effingham
Harrington
Warwick
Harcourt
Darlington
Fauconberg
Delawar
Radnor
Chatham
Bathurst
Aylesbury
Clarendon
Leicester

Uxbridge
Norwich (Duke of Gordon)
Talbot
Strange (D. of Athol)
Viſcounts
Howe
Weymouth
Falmouth
Mount Edgcumbe
Lords
Willoughby de Broke
Howard of Walden
Oſborne (Marquis of Carmarthen)
Middleton
Onſlow
Romney
King
Montford
Forteſcue
carſdale
Boſton
Digby
Sundridge (Duke of Argyle)
Amherſt
Rivers
Thurlow (Chancellor)
Harrowby
Brudenell
Walſingham
Bagot
Sydney
Lovaine
Carteret
Eliott
Bulkeley
Somers
Berwick
Delaval
Hawkeſbury
Dover
SCOTCH PEERS.
Earls
Morton
Moray
Galloway
Hopetoun
Lords
Elphinſtone
Cathcart
Archbiſhop of
Canterbury
Biſhops of
London
Durham
Bath and Wells
Carliſle
Saliſbury
Peterborough
Worceſter
Cheſter
Lincoln
Bangor
Glouceſter
St. David's.

Proteſt of the Lords, who voted on Monday December 29, againſt agreeing to the Reſolutions of the Commons, delivered at a Conference on the 23d.

DISSENTIENT,

1ſt. Becauſe we adhere to the ancient principle recognized and declared by the act of the 13th of Charles the Second, that no act or ordinance, with the force and virtue of a law, can be made by either or both houſes of parliament, without the king's aſſent; a principle ſtanding as a bulwark to the people againſt the two houſes, as the two houſes are their ſecurity againſt the crown.

2dly. Becauſe this principle is tacitly admitted by the third reſolution, while it overthrows the practice, by a ſimulate appearance of the royal aſſent, under a commiſſion to paſs bills; a commiſſion which would be inconſiſtent with the proviſions of an act of 33d Henry the Eighth, requiring, that every commiſſion ſhall be ſigned by his majeſty's hand. In our preſent unhappy ſituation, that eſſential requiſite being unattainable, we cannot condeſcend to give a ſanction to a counterfeit repreſentation of the royal ſignature, and we dare not aſſume a power to diſpenſe with the law which makes that ſignature eſſential to the validity of a commiſſion to paſs bills.

3dly. Becauſe we conceive, that the unqueſtionable rights of the people, ſo fallaciouſly repreſented as being upheld by theſe reſolutions, are violently infringed by an unneceſſary aſſumption on the part of the two houſes, of powers beyond thoſe which the nation has aſſigned them. Invariable practice

in all good times, and positive laws established by complete parliaments, truly and constitutionally representing the nation, have defined these powers. And we cannot, but regard, with the utmost apprehension, any proposal to overstep those boundaries; when the consequence of such usurpation is so fatally marked in the history of our country.

4thly. Because it was confessed, in the debate, that the powers of this commission were not to be confined solely to the act of appointing a regent: to what other purposes they may extend, were not explained. State necessity, the avowed ground of the measure, may serve as the pretext to any diminution of the just prerogative of the crown, or of the liberties of the people, that best suits the designs of ambition. Fatal experience had shewn, to our ancestors, the boundless mischief of power thus usurped under plausible appearances; and it is peculiarly the duty of the house of peers to check the renewal of the practice to assume the name, without the substance of the royal authority, by which this house was once annihilated, the monarchy overthrown, and the liberties of the people subdued.

5thly. Because these dangerous and alarming consequences of the measure adopted would have been obviated by the amendment rejected. It proposed to substitute a measure, conformable to the practice of our ancestors, at the glorious æra of the Revolution. They seized not upon public necessity as a convenience for the usurpation of new powers, but proceeded in a plain and explicit form to the revival of the royal authority with full efficacy, before they entered upon the exercise of their legislative functions. Pursuing a similar course, the amendment proposed the immediate nomination of the natural representative of the king, the heir apparent of the crown; to whom alone, it was universally admitted, the eyes and hearts of all men, during the present unhappy conjuncture, were turned; that with a perfect and efficient legislature, such future provisions might be enacted, as the preservation of the full and undiminished authority of the crown, and the liberties of the people, may require.

FREDERICK
HENRY
Northumberland
Suffolk and Berks
Maynard
Rawdon
Audley
Clifton
Chedworth
Wentworth Fitzwilliam
Walpole
Derby
Scarborough
Portchester
Southampton
Hertford
Plymouth
Ponsonby
Hereford
Cholmondely
Foley
Boyle
Lovel and Holland
Abergavenny
Teynham
Bedford
Cadogan
Carlisle
Cassilis
Cardiff
Hay
Kinnaird
Loughborough

Pelham
Spencer
Norfolk, Earl Marſhal
Breadalbane
Malmeſbury
Rodney
Selkirk
Portland
Devonſhire
Chr. Briſtol.
Craven
Huntingdon
Lothian
Townſhend

Letter from the right hon. William Pitt to the Prince of Wales, Dec. 30.

Sir,

The proceedings in parliament being now brought to a point, which will render it neceſſary to propoſe to the houſe of commons, the particular meaſures to be taken for ſupplying the defect of the perſonal exerciſe of the royal authority, during the preſent interval, and your royal highneſs having ſome time ſince ſignified your pleaſure, that any communication on this ſubject ſhould be in writing, I take the liberty of reſpectfully entreating your royal highneſs's permiſſion to ſubmit to your conſideration the outlines of the plan, which his majeſty's confidential ſervants humbly conceive (according to the beſt judgment which they are able to form) to be proper to be propoſed in the preſent circumſtances.

It is their humble opinion, that your royal highneſs ſhould be empowered to exerciſe the royal authority in the name and on the behalf of his majeſty, during his majeſty's illneſs, and to do all acts which might legally be done by his majeſty; with proviſions, nevertheleſs, that the care of his majeſty's royal perſon, and the management of his majeſty's houſehold, and the direction and appointment of the officers and ſervants therein, ſhould be in the queen, under ſuch regulations as may be thought neceſſary. —That the power to be exerciſed by your royal highneſs ſhould not extend to the granting the real or perſonal property of the king, (except as far as relates to the renewal of leaſes); to the granting any office in reverſion, or to the granting, for any other term than during his majeſty's pleaſure, any penſion, or any office whatever, except ſuch as muſt by law be granted for life, or during good behaviour; nor to the granting any rank or dignity of the peerage of this realm to any perſon except his majeſty's iſſue, who ſhall have attained the age of 21 years.

Theſe are the chief points which have occurred to his majeſty's ſervants. I beg leave to add, that their ideas are formed on the ſuppoſition that his majeſty's illneſs is only temporary, and may be of no long duration. It may be difficult to fix beforehand, the preciſe period for which theſe proviſions ought to laſt; but if unfortunately his majeſty's recovery ſhould be protracted to a more diſtant period than there is reaſon at preſent to imagine, it will be open hereafter to the wiſdom of parliament, to reconſider theſe proviſions, whenever the circumſtances appear to call for it.

If your royal highneſs ſhould be pleaſed to require any farther explanation on the ſubject, and ſhould condeſcend to ſignify your orders, that I ſhould have the honour of attending your royal highneſs for that purpoſe, or to intimate any other mode in which your royal highneſs may wiſh to receive ſuch

expla-

explanation, I ſhall reſpectfully wait your royal highneſs's commands.

I have the honour to be,

With the utmoſt deference and ſubmiſſion,

Sir,

Your royal highneſs's

Moſt dutiful and devoted ſervant,

W. PITT.

Downing-ſtreet, Tueſday Night, December 30, 1788.

Anſwer to the foregoing Letter, delivered by his Royal Highneſs to the Lord Chancellor, Jan 1, 1789.

The prince of Wales learns from Mr. Pitt's letter, that the proceedings in parliament are now in a train, which enables Mr. Pitt, according to the intimation in his former letter, to communicate to the prince the outlines of the plan which his majeſty's confidential ſervants conceive to be proper to be propoſed in the preſent circumſtances.

Concerning the ſteps already taken by Mr. Pitt, the prince is ſilent. Nothing done by the two houſes of parliament can be a proper ſubject of his animadverſion; but when, previouſly to any diſcuſſion in parliament, the outlines of a ſcheme of government are ſent for his conſideration, in which it is propoſed that he ſhall be perſonally and principally concerned, and by which the royal authority, and the public welfare may be deeply affected, the prince would be unjuſtifiable, were he to withhold an explicit declaration of his ſentiments. His ſilence might be conſtrued into a previous approbation of a plan, the accompliſhment of which every motive of duty to his father and ſovereign, as well as of regard for the public intereſt, obliges him to conſider as injurious to both.

In the ſtate of deep diſtreſs, in which the prince and the whole royal family were involved, by the heavy calamity which has fallen upon the king, and at a moment when government, deprived of its chief energy and ſupport, ſeemed peculiarly to need the cordial and united aid of all deſcriptions of good ſubjects, it was not expected by the prince, that a plan ſhould be offered to his conſideration, by which government was to be rendered difficult, if not impracticable, in the hands of any perſon intended to repreſent the king's authority, much leſs in the hands of his eldeſt ſon—the heir apparent of his kingdoms, and the perſon moſt bound to the maintenance of his majeſty's juſt prerogatives and authority, as well as moſt intereſted in the happineſs, the proſperity, and the glory of the people.

The prince forbears to remark on the ſeveral parts of the ſketch of the plan laid before him; he apprehends it muſt have been formed with ſufficient deliberation to preclude the probability of any argument of his producing an alteration of ſentiment in the projectors of it. But he truſts, with confidence, to the wiſdom and juſtice of parliament, when the whole of this ſubject, and the circumſtances connected with it, ſhall come under their deliberation.

He obſerves, therefore, only generally on the heads communicated by Mr. Pitt—and it is with deep regret the prince makes the obſervation, that he ſees in the contents of that paper, a project for producing weakneſs, diſorder, and inſecurity in every branch of the adminiſtration of affairs.—A project for divid-

ing the royal family from each other—for ſeparating the court from the ſtate; and therefore, by disjoining government from its natural and accuſtomed ſupport, a ſcheme for diſconnecting the authority to command ſervice, from the power of animating it by reward; and for allotting to the prince all the invidious duties of government, without the means of ſoftening them to the public, by any one act of grace, favour, or benignity.

The prince's feelings on contemplating this plan, are alſo rendered ſtill more painful to him, by obſerving that it is not founded on any general principle, but is calculated to infuſe jealouſies and ſuſpicions (wholly groundleſs, he truſts) in that quarter, whoſe confidence it will ever be the firſt pride of his life to merit and obtain.

With regard to the motive and object of the limitations and reſtrictions propoſed, the prince can have but little to obſerve. No light or information is offered him by his majeſty's miniſters on theſe points. They have informed him *what* the powers are which they mean to refuſe him, not *why* they are withheld.

The prince, however, holding as he does, that it is an undoubted and fundamental principle of this conſtitution, that the powers and prerogatives of the crown are veſted there, as a truſt for the benefit of the people; and that they are ſacred only as they are neceſſary to the preſervation of that poiſe and balance of the conſtitution, which experience has proved to be the true ſecurity of the liberty of the ſubject—muſt be allowed to obſerve, that the plea of public utility ought to be ſtrong, manifeſt, and urgent, which calls for the extinction or ſuſpenſion of any one of thoſe eſſential rights in the ſupreme power or its repreſentative; or which can juſtify the prince in conſenting, that in his perſon an experiment ſhall be made, to aſcertain with how ſmall a portion of the kingly power the executive government of this country may be carried on.

The prince has only to add, that if ſecurity for his majeſty's repoſſeſſing his rightful government, whenever it ſhall pleaſe Providence, in bounty to the country, to remove the calamity with which he is afflicted, be any part of the object of this plan, the prince has only to be convinced that any meaſure is neceſſary, or even conducive, to that end, to be the firſt to urge it as the preliminary and paramount conſideration of any ſettlement in which he would conſent to ſhare.

If attention to what is preſumed might be his majeſty's feelings and wiſhes on the happy day of his recovery, be the object, it is with the trueſt ſincerity the prince expreſſes his firm conviction, that no event would be more repugnant to the feelings of his royal father, than the knowledge, that the government of his ſon and repreſentative had exhibited the ſovereign power of the realm in a ſtate of degradation, of curtailed authority and diminiſhed energy—a ſtate, hurtful in practice to the proſperity and good government of his people, and injurious in its precedent to the ſecurity of the monarch, and the rights of his family.

Upon that part of the plan which regards the king's real and perſonal property, the prince feels himſelf compelled to remark, that it was not neceſſary for Mr Pitt, nor proper to ſuggeſt to the prince, the reſtraint he propoſes againſt the prince's granting away the king's real and perſonal property. The

prince

prince does not conceive, that, during the king's life, he is, by law, entitled to make any such grant; and he is sure, that he has never shewn the smallest inclination to possess any such power. But it remains with Mr. Pitt to consider the eventual interests of the royal family, and to provide a proper and natural security against the mismanagement of them by others.

The prince has discharged an indispensable duty, in thus giving his free opinion on the plan submitted to his consideration.

His conviction of the evils which may arise to the king's interests, to the peace and happiness of the royal family, and to the safety and welfare of the nation, from the government of the country remaining longer in its present maimed and debilitated state, outweighs in the prince's mind, every other consideration, and will determine him to undertake the painful trust imposed upon him by the present melancholy necessity (which of all the king's subjects he deplores the most) in full confidence, that the affection and loyalty to the king, the experienced attachment to the house of Brunswick, and the generosity which has always distinguished this nation, will carry him through the many difficulties, inseparable from this most critical situation, with comfort to himself, with honour to the king, and with advantage to the public.

(Signed)

Carleton House, G. P.
January 2. 1789.

Protest of the Lords, who voted on Friday Jan 23, *against agreeing to the Resolutions of the Commons, delivered at a Conference on the preceding Tuesday.*

DISSENTIENT.

1st. Because we firmly adhere to the principles and arguments, on which we disapproved the resolutions formerly passed by this house, especially when the legislative power of the two houses of parliament, unconstitutionally assumed by those resolutions, is meant to be employed to restrict or suspend many important and essential branches of the royal power, at the moment of the declared incapacity of the king.

2dly. Because we think the power of conferring the rank and privileges of the peerage, as a reward to merit, is necessary to the royal authority, in order to afford an incitement to vigorous exertions in the service of the state, and is more peculiarly necessary (like all other parts of the prerogative) when the regal power is to be exercised by a substitute, with an authority uncertain and precarious in its duration: but especially on the present occasion, as it is the only branch of the prerogative sufficiently powerful to afford a remedy against such a combination in this house, as other parts of this system of restriction and mutilation, have a natural and obvious tendency to produce.

And because we conceive that this restriction, may create an interest in the members of this house, to withhold their assent to restore the ancient powers of the crown in this respect.

3dly. Because we conceive, that by the subsisting law of the land, his majesty's property is sufficiently secured from any undue disposition and alienation, and the reso ution on that subject can have no other effect, but to convey to the public injurious suspicion, and unjust imputation, on the character and intentions of his royal highness the prince of Wales.

4thly. Becauſe we are of opinion, that in order to maintain the proper dignity of the crown, and preſerve the due influence and reſpect which ariſes from the great offices of the ſtate, it is neceſſary that the perſon exerciſing the royal authority in the name and on the behalf of his majeſty, ſhould be attended by thoſe diſtinguiſhed ſervants, whoſe functions have been eſtabliſhed for the purpoſe of adding weight and ſplendor to the regal office. We cannot agree to a diviſion of the royal power; to the creation of a fourth eſtate, unknown to the conſtitution of this country.

FREDERICK	Southampton
HENRY	Shafteſbury
Lothian	Chedworth
Devonſhire	Portland
Audley	Huntingdon
Craven	Egremont
Bedford	Ponſonby
Carliſle	Malmeſbury
Portcheſter	Sondes
Pelham	Montfort
Breadalbane	Derby
Caſſilis	Hertford
Abergavenny	Cadogan
Loughborough	Boyle
Scarborough	Maynard
Foley	Eglington
Ponſonby	Sandwich
Douglas	Kinnaird
Rawdon	Aberdeen
St. John	Chr. Briſtol
R. Llandaff	Hay
Cholmondeley	Rodney
Hereford	Northumberland
Peterborough	W. Fitzwilliam
Stawell	Buckingham-
Cardiff	ſhire.

DISS. for the 2d, 3d, and 4th reaſons.

St Albans.

DISS. For the 1ſt, 2d, and 4th reaſons only,

Clifton	Spencer
Suffolk and Berks	Hawke.

DISS. For all the reaſons given in this proteſt, except thoſe in the latter parts of the 2d reaſon, viz. beginning at theſe words, "but eſpecially on, &c." and thence to the end of that ſecond reaſon.

Selkirk.

Reſolutions agreed to by the Lords and Commons, and preſented to the Prince of Wales, on Friday, Jan. 30.

Reſolved, that for the purpoſe of providing for the exerciſe of the royal authority, during the continuance of his majeſty's illneſs, in ſuch manner, and to ſuch extent, as the preſent circumſtances and the urgent concerns of the nation appear to require, it is expedient that his royal highneſs the prince of Wales, being reſident within the realm, ſhall be empowered to exerciſe and adminiſter the royal authority, according to the laws and conſtitution of Great Britain, in the name and on the behalf of his majeſty, and under the ſtyle and title of Regent of the kingdom; and to uſe, execute, and perform, in the name and on the behalf of his majeſty, all authorities, prerogatives, acts of government, and adminiſtration of the ſame, which belong to the king of this realm to uſe, execute, and perform, according to the laws thereof, ſubject to ſuch limitations and exceptions as ſhall be provided.

Reſolved, that the power, ſo to be given to his royal highneſs the prince of Wales, ſhall not extend to the granting of any rank or dignity of the peerage of the realm to any perſon whatever, except to his majeſty's royal iſſue who ſhall have attained the full age of twenty-one years.

Reſolved, that the ſaid power ſhould

ſhould not extend to the granting of any office whatever in reverſion, or to the granting of any office, ſalary, or penſion, for any other term than during his majeſty's pleaſure, except ſuch offices as are by law required to be granted for life, or during good behaviour.

Reſolved, that the ſaid powers ſhould not extend to the granting of any part of his majeſty's real or perſonal eſtate, except ſo far as relates to the renewal of leaſes.

Reſolved, that the care of his majeſty's royal perſon, during the continuance of his majeſty's illneſs, ſhould be committed to the queen's moſt excellent majeſty; and that her majeſty ſhould have power to remove from, and to nominate and appoint ſuch perſons as ſhe ſhall think proper, to the ſeveral offices in his majeſty's houſehold; and to diſpoſe, order, and manage all other matters and things relating to the care of his majeſty's royal perſon, during the time aforeſaid: and that, for the better enabling her majeſty to diſcharge this important truſt, it is alſo expedient that a council ſhould be appointed, to adviſe and aſſiſt her majeſty in the ſeveral matters aforeſaid, and with power from time to time, as they may ſee cauſe, to examine upon oath the phyſicians and others attending his majeſty's perſon, touching the ſtate of his majeſty's health, and all matters relative thereto.

Die Mercurii, 28° *Januarii*, 1789.

Reſolved, that a committee be appointed, to attend his royal highneſs the prince of Wales with the reſolutions which have been agreed to by the lords and commons for the purpoſe of ſupplying the defect of the perſonal exerciſe of the royal authority during his majeſty's illneſs, by impowering his royal highneſs to exerciſe ſuch authority in the name and on the behalf of his majeſty, ſubject to the limitations and reſtrictions which the circumſtances of the caſe appear at preſent to require; and that the committee do expreſs the hope which the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and commons, entertain, that his royal highneſs, from his regard to the intereſts of his majeſty and the nation, will be ready to undertake the weighty and important truſt propoſed to be inveſted in his royal highneſs, as ſoon as an act of parliament ſhall have been paſſed for carrying the ſaid reſolutions into effect.

Anſwer of the Prince of Wales to the Lords and Gentlemen, appointed to deliver to him the foregoing Reſolutions.

My lords and gentlemen,

I Thank you for communicating to me the reſolutions agreed upon by the two houſes, and I requeſt you to aſſure them in my name, that my duty to the king my father, and my anxious concern for the ſafety and intereſts of the people, which muſt be endangered, by a longer ſuſpenſion of the exerciſe of the royal authority; together with my reſpect for the united deſires of the two houſes, outweigh, in my mind, every other conſideration, and will determine me to undertake the weighty and important truſt propoſed to me, in conformity to the the reſolutions now communicated to me. I am ſenſible of the difficulties that muſt attend the execution of this truſt, in the peculiar circumſtances in which it is committed to my charge, of which, as I am acquainted with no former example, my hopes of a ſucceſsful adminiſtration cannot be founded on any paſt expe-

experience. But confiding that the limitations, on the exercise of the royal authority, deemed necessary for the present, have been approved by the two houses only as a temporary measure, founded on the loyal hope, in which I ardently participate, that his majesty's disorder may not be of long duration, and trusting, in the mean while, that I shall receive a zealous and united support in the two houses and in the nation, proportioned to the difficulty attending the discharge of my trust in this interval, I will entertain the pleasing hope, that my faithful endeavours to preserve the interests of the king, his crown, and people, may be successful.

Resolutions agreed to by the Lords and Commons, presented to her Majesty on Friday, Jan. 30, 1789.

Resolved, that the care of his majesty's royal person, during the continuance of his majesty's illness, should be committed to the queen's most excellent majesty, and that her majesty should have power to remove from, and to nominate and appoint such persons as she shall think proper, to the several offices in his majesty's household, and to dispose, order, and manage all other matters and things relating to the care of his majesty's royal person, during the time aforesaid. And that, for the better enabling her majesty to discharge this important trust, it is also expedient that a council should be appointed, to advise and assist her majesty in the several matters, and with power, from time to time as they may see cause, to examine upon oath the physicians and others attending his majesty's person, touching the state of his majesty's health, and all matters relative thereto.

Resolved, that the resolution agreed to by the lords and commons, respecting the care of his majesty's royal person, and the direction of his majesty's household, be laid before her majesty, with an humble address, expressing the hope which the lords spiritual and temporal and commons entertain, that her majesty will be graciously pleased to undertake the important trust proposed to be invested in her majesty, as soon as an act of parliament shall have been passed for carrying the said resolution into effect.

Her Majesty's Answer to the Lords and Gentlemen, who delivered the foregoing Resolutions.

My lords and gentlemen,

My duty and gratitude to the king, and the sense I must ever entertain of my great obligations to this country, will certainly engage my most earnest attention to the anxious and momentous trust intended to be reposed in me by parliament. It will be a great consolation to me to receive the aid of a council, of which I shall stand so much in need, in the discharge of a duty wherein the happiness of my future life is indeed deeply interested, but which a higher object, the happiness of a great, loyal, and affectionate people, renders still more important.

Speech of Earl Bathurst, in the Name of the Lords Commissioner, appointed by his Majesty's Commission, under the Great Seal, to declare certain Causes of the Meeting of Parliament, Tuesday, Feb. 3.

My lords and gentlemen,

In pursuance of the authority given to us by his majesty's commission under the great seal, which has been

been read, amongſt other things, to declare the cauſes of your preſent meeting, we have only to call your attention to the melancholy circumſtances of his majeſty's illneſs; in conſequence of which, it becomes neceſſary to provide for the care of his majeſty's royal perſon, and for the adminiſtration of the royal authority, during the continuance of this calamity, in ſuch manner as the exigency of the caſe ſeems to require.

Speech of the Lord Chancellor to both Houſes of Parliament, Tueſday March 10.

My lords and gentlemen,

His majeſty not thinking fit to be preſent here this day in his royal perſon, has been pleaſed to cauſe a commiſſion to be iſſued under his great ſeal, authorizing and commanding the commiſſioners, who are appointed by former letters patent to hold this parliament, to open and declare certain further cauſes for holding the ſame: which commiſſion you will now hear read,

[The commiſſion ſtated, that whereas his majeſty had found it convenient to call his parliament in May, 1784, and that it had afterwards been adjourned and prorogued, from time to time, until the 20th of November laſt; and that as his majeſty, for certain reaſons, could not then attend in perſon, it had undergone various adjournments, until the February following, when he had been pleaſed to iſſue his orders, that it ſhould be opened by commiſſion, appointing the archbiſhop of Canterbury, the lord chancellor, lord privy ſeal, preſident of the council, lord ſteward of the houſehold, duke of Richmond, lord chamberlain, viſcount Wentworth, lord Bathurſt, the two ſecretaries of ſtate, and the lord chief juſtice of the court of king's bench, commiſſioners for that purpoſe; and that, as there were ſtill certain reaſons why he could not attend in parliament in perſon, as uſual, he had thought proper to command another commiſſion, appointing the ſame commiſſioners to communicate his royal meſſuage to parliament.]

And the ſaid commiſſion being read accordingly, the lord chancellor ſaid.

My lords and gentlemen,

In obedience to his majeſty's commands, and by virtue of both commiſſions already mentioned to you (one of which has now been read), we proceed to lay before you ſuch further matters as his majeſty has judged proper to be now communicated to his parliament.

His majeſty being, by the bleſſing of Providence, happily recovered from the ſevere indiſpoſition with which he has been afflicted: and being enabled to attend to the public affairs of his kingdom, has commanded us to convey to you his warmeſt acknowledgments for the additional proofs which you have given of your affectionate attachment to his perſon, and of your zealous concern for the honour and intereſts of his crown, and the ſecurity and good government of his dominions.

The interruption which has neceſſarily been occaſioned to the public buſineſs, will, his majeſty doubts not, afford you an additional incitement to apply yourſelves, with as little delay as poſſible, to the different objects of national concern which require your attention.

His majeſty has likewiſe ordered us to acquaint you, that, ſince the cloſe of the laſt ſeſſion, he has concluded

cluded a treaty of defenſive alliance with his good brother the king of Pruſſia, copies of which will be laid before you: that his majeſty's endeavours were employed, during the laſt ſummer, in conjunction with his allies, in order to prevent, as much as poſſible, the extenſion of hoſtilities in the North, and to manifeſt his deſire of effecting a general pacification: that no opportunity will be neglected, on his part, to promote this ſalutary object; and that he has, in the mean time, the ſatisfaction of receiving, from all foreign courts, continued aſſurances of their friendly diſpoſitions to this country.

Gentlemen of the houſe of commons,

We are commanded by his majeſty to acquaint you, that the eſtimates for the current year will forthwith be laid before you; and that he is perſuaded of your readineſs to make the neceſſary proviſions for the ſeveral branches of the public ſervice.

My lords and gentlemen,

We have it particularly in charge from his majeſty to aſſure you, that you cannot ſo effectually meet the moſt earneſt wiſh of his majeſty's heart, as by perſevering in your uniform exertions for the public welfare, and by improving every occaſion to promote the proſperity of his faithful people, from whom his majeſty has received ſuch repeated and affecting marks of invariable zeal, loyalty, and attachment, and whoſe happineſs he muſt ever conſider as inſeparable from his own.

Speech of the Lord Chancellor to both Houſes of Parliament, on Tueſday Aug. 11.

My lords and gentlemen,

We have it in command from his majeſty, to expreſs to you the ſatisfaction with which his majeſty has obſerved the continued proofs which you have given, during the preſent ſeſſion, of your uniform attention to the public buſineſs, and of your zealous concern for the honour and intereſts of his crown, and the welfare and proſperity of his people.

Gentlemen of the houſe of commons,

His majeſty has particularly directed us to return his thanks for the readineſs with which you have granted the neceſſary ſupplies for the ſeveral branches of the public ſervice.

My lords and gentlemen,

Although the good offices of his majeſty and his allies have not hitherto been effectual for reſtoring the general tranquillity of Europe, he has the ſatisfaction of ſeeing that the further extenſion of hoſtilities has been prevented, and that the ſituation of affairs continues to promiſe to this country the uninterrupted enjoyment of the bleſſings of peace.

Then the lord chancellor, by his majeſty's command, ſaid,

My lords, and gentlemen,

It is his majeſty's royal will and pleaſure, that this parliament be prorogued to Thurſday, the 29th of October next, to be then here holden; and this parliament is accordingly prorogued to Thurſday the 29th day of October next.

Speech of the Marquis of Buckingham, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, to both Houſes of Parliament, on Thurſday, Feb. 5.

My lords and gentlemen.

With the deepeſt concern I find myſelf obliged, on opening the preſent ſeſſion of parliament, to communicate to you the painful infor-

mation that his majeſty has been for ſome time afflicted by a ſevere malady, in conſequence of which he has not honoured me with his commands upon the meaſures to be recommended to his parliament.

I have directed ſuch documents as I have received reſpecting his majeſty's health to be laid before you; and I ſhall alſo communicate to you, ſo ſoon as I ſhall be enabled, ſuch further information as may aſſiſt your deliberations on that melancholy ſubject.

Gentlemen of the houſe of commons,

Deeming it at all times my indiſpenſable duty to call your attention to the ſecurity of the public credit, and to the maintenance of the civil and military eſtabliſhment, I have ordered the public accounts to be laid before you.

My lords and gentlemen.

It is unneceſſary for me to expreſs to you my earneſt wiſhes for the welfare and proſperity of Ireland, which, in every ſituation, I ſhall always be anxious to promote: nor need I declare my confidence in that affectionate attachment to his majeſty, and in that zealous concern for the united intereſt of both kingdoms, which have manifeſted themſelves in all your proceedings.

Proteſt of the Peers of Ireland, who voted, on Monday, Feb. 16. againſt the Addreſs to the Prince of Wales, requeſting his Royal Highneſs to take upon him the Office of Prince Regent.

DISSENTIENT,

1ſt. Becauſe, the addreſs in queſtion to his royal highneſs the Prince of Wales, is an addreſs, requeſting that he will be pleaſed to take upon him the government of this realm in ſuch manner as is therein mentioned, and to exerciſe and adminiſter, according to the laws and conſtitution of this kingdom, all royal powers, juriſdiction, and perogatives to the crown and government thereof belonging, without any law or authority whatſoever that we know of, authorizing him ſo to do.

2dly. Becauſe, we are apprehenſive that the ſaid addreſs may be conſtrued to be a meaſure tending to diſturb and weaken that great conſtitutional union, whereby, as fully declared, enacted, and ſpecified in ſundry acts of parliament in this kingdom, this realm of Ireland is for ever united and knit to the imperial crown of England, and as a member, appending and rightfully belonging thereto.

3dly. Becauſe, although in every ſentiment of duty, affection, and reſpect, towards his royal highneſs, we hold ourſelves equal to, and will not be exceeded by, any of thoſe who join in the ſaid addreſs, or by any other perſon whatſoever; and are, and ever ſhall be, ready to lay down our lives and fortunes in the ſupport and maintenance of the juſt rights of our moſt gracious ſovereign, and of every branch of his royal and auguſt family: we cannot pay any compliment to his royal highneſs, or to any one, at the expence of what we conſider as great conſtitutional principles; and we cannot, (for ſuch are the workings of duty, affection, and reſpect in our breaſts,) join in the ſaid addreſs, which may, as we are apprehenſive, bring difficulty and embarraſſment upon his royal highneſs, already too much oppreſſed by the great calamity which hath befallen our moſt gracious ſovereign, his royal father.

Signed

Lifford, C.	Carysfort
R. Dublin	Valentia
Harberton	Mornington

Long-

Longford	Carysfort,
Bective	Courtown
Chetwynd	G. L. Kilmore
Hillsborough	Ranelagh
Altamont	Mountmorres.

DISSENTIENT

For the second reason in the foregoing protest.

And also, because feeling every sentiment of duty, respect, and attachment to his royal highness the prince of Wales, and thinking him the only proper person to be appointed to this high station, I consider, that to address his royal highness to accept the regency of this kingdom, before we have any authority to know, that he is as yet appointed regent of Great Britain, is inviting him to assume a power, which under the actual and existing constitution of Ireland, he cannot exercise, inasmuch as by statute 10 of Henry VII. no bill can receive the royal assent here, that is not certified from Great Britain under the great seal of England, and until his royal highness shall have authority to direct the use of that great seal, he cannot discharge the functions of the regal office for Ireland. It is impossible, according to the laws and constitution of this kingdom, that any person should be regent of Ireland, who is not at the same time regent of Great Britain.

Glandore.

DISSENTIENT

1st, Because, with an anxious desire that the regency of this kingdom, during his majesty's indisposition, should be conferred on his royal highness the prince of Wales in a manner most expressive of respect and affection to his royal highness, and convinced that his royal highness will think that mode of appointment most expressive of duty and affection, which is constitutional, and must conduce to preserve the connexion between Great Britain and Ireland inseparable, we consider an address of the two houses of parliament, purporting of its own authority, to confer royal power, at a time when they are fully competent to pass a bill for the purpose of effectually providing for the exercise of the same, to be a most dangerous violation of the fundamental principles of the constitution.

2dly. Because, the connexion between Great Britain and Ireland (on which the safety of the constitution in church and state depends) is preserved and maintained by the unity of the executive power alone; and yet the address proposed by the resolution now passed, is to appoint his royal highness regent of Ireland, without our being certain that his royal highness is or will be regent of Great Britain, and without making any provision, that his royal highness shall not continue to be regent of Ireland longer than he shall be regent of Great Britain. Thus exposing to chance and accident the preservation of the only bond of that connexion between the countries, upon which all that is dear to us depends, and making a precedent that may be of the most fatal consequence to posterity.

Tyrone
Wm. Ossory
Wm. Leighlin and Ferns
Bellamont.

DISSENTIENT,

For the first reason in the protest immediately preceding,

And also, because we consider that if by virtue of this address alone, his royal highness the prince of Wales shall take upon himself the regal powers of this kingdom, his royal highness will by such assumption be drawn in to decide upon a

impor

important conſtitutional queſtion, equally affecting Great Britain and Ireland.

And alſo, becauſe we conſider theſe words in the addreſs, "and no longer," as unneceſſary and at the ſame time diſreſpectful to the prince of Wales, tending to convey an idea that this country can confer, or that the prince might continue to hold over the powers of a regent for a longer time than the continuation of the king's indiſpoſition incapacitated his majeſty from being reſtored to the full exerciſe of the powers appertaining to the crowns of Great Britain and Ireland.

Carhampton, Conyngham.

Anſwer of the Lord Lieutenant to the Addreſs of both Houſes, requeſting him to tranſmit their addreſs to the Prince of Wales.

My lords and gentlemen.

Under the impreſſion which I feel of my official duty, and of the oath which I have taken as chief governor of Ireland, I am obliged to decline tranſmitting this addreſs into Great Britain.

For I cannot conſider myſelf warranted to lay before the prince of Wales an addreſs, purporting to inveſt his royal highneſs with powers to take upon him the government of this realm before he ſhall be enabled by law ſo to do.

Proteſt of the Minority in the Iriſh Houſe of Lords againſt the Reſolutions voted Feb. 19, *aſſerting the Right of both Houſes to declare a Prince Regent.*

DISSENTIENT,

Becauſe the undoubted right, and the indiſpenſable duty, declared in the ſaid reſolution to have been exerciſed and diſcharged by the lords and commons of Ireland, and to which it is alleged they are alone competent, do not in any legal or ſound ſenſe, appear to us to have any exiſtence. —And becauſe, the aſſuming a right in the lords and commons alone, to confer upon his royal highneſs the prince of Wales the government of this kingdom, under the ſtyle and title of prince regent of Ireland, in the name and on the behalf of his majeſty, to exerciſe and adminiſter, according to the laws and conſtitution of this kingdom, all regal powers and prerogatives to the crown and government thereof belonging, or the addreſſing his royal highneſs to take upon himſelf ſuch government in manner aforeſaid, before he be enabled by law ſo to do, ſeems to us altogether unwarrantable, and to be highly dangerous in its tendency to diſturb and break the conſtitutional union, whereby this realm of Ireland is for ever knit and united to the imperial crown of England, on which connexion the happineſs of both kingdoms eſſentially depends; and we are the more apprehenſive of danger, leſt the ſo doing ſhould be conſidered as tending to the prejudice, diſturbance, or derogation of the king's majeſty in, of, or for the crown of this realm of Ireland.

Lifford, C.
Hillſborough
William Oſſory
Valentia
Courtown
Mornington
Longford
Altamont
Geo. Lewis Kilmore
J. Clogher
Ranelagh
William Leighlin and Ferns
Bellamont
Powerſcourt

Powerſcourt
Glandore
Mountmorres
Enniſkillen
R. Dublin
Conyngham
Tyrone
Laneſborough
Bective
Chetwynd
Carhampton
Harberton.

Proteſt of the Lords againſt the Vote of Cenſure on the Lord Lieutenant.

DISSENTIENT,

Becauſe, when his excellency the lord lieutenant, his majeſty's repreſentative here, hath told us, that under the impreſſion of his official duty, and of the oath that he hath taken as chief governor of this kingdom, he is obliged to decline tranſmitting to Great Britain the addreſſes of both houſes of parliament to his royal highneſs the prince of Wales, it doth not conſiſt with that decorum, with that juſtice, and with that grave proceeding with which this houſe, the great and derniere court of juſtice, ſhould ever act, to proceed to a condemnation and cenſure of his excellency, without being allowed to enquire and look into the conſtitution of his office, or into his oath: — and beſides, we cannot conſider it as a want of reſpect to his royal highneſs the prince of Wales, the not tranſmitting the ſaid addreſs to him, as it would expoſe his royal highneſs to difficulty and embarraſſment, by laying him under the diſagreeable neceſſity of deciding upon great, legal, and conſtitutional principles, in which his royal highneſs's future intereſts, and the rights of that imperial crown which he is born to inherit, may be very deeply co
cerned:— and, moreover, we co
ceive this houſe ought ever to
mindful of the ſtation in which t
conſtitution hath placed it, a
ought to reſiſt every thing whi
partakes of intemperance and e
ceſs.

Lifford, C.
Hillſborough
Powerſcourt
William Offory
Mountmorres
Valentia
Courtown
Mornington
Enniſkillen
Longford
Altamont
Glandore
R. Dublin
Tyrone
Carhampton
Bective
Laneſborough
Harberton
Conyngham
Bellamont
Geo. Lewis Kilmore
J. Clogher
William Leighlin and Fer
Ranelagh.

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*Proteſt on Friday, Feb. 20. upon t
Motion for putting off the Conſid
ation of appointing parliamenta
Commiſſioners to carry the Addreſ
the Prince of Wales, to the 1ſt
October, being negatived.*

DISSENTIENT.

1ſt. Becauſe the appointment
parliamentary commiſſioners,
ballot, the 27th of June, 1661,
ſuperintend the intereſt of the Iri
parliament, and to counteract p
vate claims and petitions in E
gland, was in conſequence of a co
ference with the houſe of commo

n which weighty reaſons, which ppear upon the journals, were aſigned by them, for the adoption f this meaſure: and becauſe this nemorable precedent was not duly ttended to in the preſent proceedng.

2dly. Becauſe that commiſſion, n 1661, coſt this country twelve houſand pounds; and although he noble commiſſioners, with proper dignity, ſeem to diſclaim any dea of pecuniary compenſation, uch a meaſure ought not to be dopted, nor ſuch a precedent created, unleſs upon moſt momentous ational concerns, upon the ground f great public inconvenience and xpence in future.

3dly. Becauſe it was admitted in lebate, that the addreſs was incomplete and inefficient, without an act f parliament. The proceeding for his reaſon has begun at the wrong nd—and I ſhould be ſorry that the noble and reſpectable commiſſioners hould carry a premature and nugatory invitation to his royal highneſs the prince of Wales, to take upon him an office—intended to be created by law, which as yet has no egal exiſtence in this country.

4thly. Becauſe the transfer of ull regal powers from a Britiſh monarch upon the throne to his ſucceſſor, reſembles the irregular and violent proceedings againſt king Edward the Second.

5thly. Becauſe the ſtyle and title of prince regent of Ireland, is a fanciful deſignation,—of which no reſemblance can be found in our annals—nor are the terms of that title (in my humble opinion) juſtified by courteſy or precedence, countenanced by grammar, or warranted by law.

6thly. Becauſe there are authentic accounts of his majeſty's progreſſive convaleſcence, and well-founded hopes of his ſhortly reaſſuming the royal functions may be entertained—and that an act of regency will not be neceſſary.

7thly. Becauſe, if we may reaſon from the paſt to the future, from what has to what may happen, hazard conjectures upon probable conſequences, and reflect upon his majeſty's early magnanimity upon the proceedings in the regency bill, in 1765, it may be ſuppoſed, with due ſubmiſſion, that it is not impoſſible that our gracious ſovereign may provide, with the advice of his faithful parliaments, for ſuch aid and aſſiſtance as may be expedient and neceſſary, and make thoſe permanent proviſions, during his reign, which may accord with his own, and with the wiſhes of his people.

Mountmorres.

Addreſs preſented to the Prince of Wales, Feb. 27, by the Delegates from both Houſes.

To his royal highneſs George Prince of Wales.

The humble addreſs of the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and knights, citizens, and burgeſſes, in parliament aſſembled.

May it pleaſe your royal highneſs,

We, his majeſty's moſt dutiful and loyal ſubjects, the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and the commons of Ireland in parliament aſſembled, beg leave to approach your royal highneſs, with hearts full of the moſt loyal and affectionate attachment to the perſon and government of your royal father, to expreſs the deepeſt and moſt grateful ſenſe of the numerous bleſſings which we have enjoyed under that illuſtrious houſe, whoſe acceſſion to the throne of theſe realms has eſtabliſhed civil

and conſtitutional liberties upon a baſis which, we truſt, will never be ſhaken; and at the ſame time to condole with your royal highneſs upon the grievous malady with which it has pleaſed heaven to afflict the beſt of ſovereigns.

We have, however, the conſolation of reflecting, that this ſevere calamity hath not been viſited upon us, until the virtues of your royal highneſs have been ſo matured as to enable your royal highneſs to diſcharge the duties of an important truſt, for the performance whereof, the eyes of all his majeſty's ſubjects of both kingdoms are directed to your royal highneſs.

We therefore beg leave humbly to requeſt, that your royal highneſs will be pleaſed to take upon you the government of this realm, during the continuance of his majeſty's preſent indiſpoſition, and no longer; and under the ſtyle and title of prince regent of Ireland, in the name and on the behalf of his majeſty, to exerciſe and adminiſter, according to the laws and conſtitution of this kingdom, all regal powers, juriſdictions, and prerogatives, to the crown and government thereof belonging.

Anſwer of the Prince of Wales to the foregoing Addreſs.

My lords and gentlemen,

The addreſs from the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and commons of Ireland, which you have preſented to me, demands my warmeſt and earlieſt thanks. If any thing could add to the eſteem and affection I have for the people of Ireland, it would be the loyal and affectionate attachment to the perſon and government of the king, my father, manifeſted in the addreſs of the two houſes.

What they have done, and their manner of doing it, is a new proof of their undiminiſhed duty to his majeſty, of their uniform attachment to the houſe of Brunſwick, and their conſtant attention to maintain inviolate the concord and connexion between the kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland, ſo indiſpenſably neceſſary to the proſperity, the happineſs, and the liberties of both.

If in conveying my grateful ſentiments on their conduct, in relation to the king, my father, and to the inſeparable intereſt of the two kingdoms, I find it impoſſible to expreſs adequately my feelings on what relates to myſelf, I truſt you will not be the leſs diſpoſed to believe, that I have an underſtanding to comprehend the value of what they have done, a heart that muſt remember, and principles that will not ſuffer me to abuſe their confidence.

But the fortunate change which has taken place in the circumſtance which gave occaſion to the addreſs agreed to by the lords and commons of Ireland, induces me to delay, for a few days, giving a final anſwer, truſting, that the joyful event of his majeſty's reſuming the perſonal exerciſe of his royal authority, may then render it only neceſſary for me to repeat thoſe ſentiments of gratitude and affection to the loyal and generous people of Ireland, which I feel indelibly imprinted on my heart.

Final Anſwer of the Prince of Wales to the Deputation from both Houſes of the Parliament of Ireland, March 12.

My lords and gentlemen,

The happy event of the king's recovery, and the conſequent re-aſſumption of the exerciſe of his auſpicious

ſpicious government, announced by his royal commiſſion for declaring the further cauſes of holding the parliament of Great Britain, has done away the melancholy neceſſity which gave riſe to the arrangement propoſed by the parliament of Ireland; but nothing can obliterate from my memory and my gratitude, the principles upon which that arrangement was made, and the circumſtances by which it was attended.

I conſider your generous kindneſs to his majeſty's royal family, and the proviſion you made for preſerving the authority of the crown in its conſtitutional energy, as the moſt unequivocal proof which could be given of your affectionate loyalty to the king, at the time when, by an afflicting diſpenſation of Providence, his government had ſuffered an intermiſſion, and his houſe was deprived of its natural protector.

I ſhall not pay ſo ill a compliment to the lords and commons of Ireland, as to ſuppoſe that they were miſtaken in their reliance on the moderation of my views and the purity of my intentions. A manly confidence, directing the manner of proceeding toward thoſe who entertain ſentiments becoming the high ſituation to which they are born, furniſhes the moſt powerful motives to the perfomance of their duty; at the ſame time that the liberality of ſentiment which, in conveying a truſt confers an honour, can have no tendency to relax that provident vigilance and that public jealouſy which ought to watch over the exerciſe of power.

My lords and gentlemen,

Though full of joy for the event which enables me to take leave of you in this manner, perſonally, I cannot but regret your departure: I have had the opportunity of acquiring a knowledge of your private characters, and it has added to the high eſteem which I had before entertained for you on account of your public merits; both have made you the worthy repreſentatives of the great bodies to which you belong.

I am confident that I need not add my earneſt recommendation to the parliament and people of Ireland to continue to cultivate the harmony of the two kingdoms, which in their mutual perfect freedom will find the cloſeſt as well as happieſt bond of their connexion.

Speech of the Lord Lieutenant to both Houſes of Parliament, March 14.

My lords and gentlemen,

With the moſt heartfelt ſatisfaction I take the earlieſt opportunity to inform you, in obedience to the king's commands, that it has pleaſed Divine Providence to remove from him the ſevere indiſpoſition with which he has been afflicted; and that, by the bleſſing of Almighty God, he is now again enabled to attend to the urgent concerns of his kingdoms, and perſonally to exerciſe the royal authority.

Gentlemen of the houſe of commons,

I have ſubmitted to his majeſty's conſideration the ſupplies which you have already granted for the immediate exigencies of the public ſervice, and the performance of the national engagements; and I am commanded by his majeſty to expreſs his perfect confidence in your readineſs to make ſuch farther proviſion as ſhall be neceſſary for the uſual ſupport of his majeſty's government.

My lords and gentlemen,

I have it particularly in charge from his majeſty to aſſure you, that

the prosperity of his loyal and faithful people of Ireland, from whom his majesty had repeatedly received the strongest proofs of affectionate attachment to his sacred person, will be ever near to his heart; and that his majesty is fully persuaded, that your zeal for the public welfare will enable him to promote, by every wise and salutary measure, the interests of this kingdom.

"I cannot conclude this communication to you without expressing my fullest conviction, that his majesty's faithful parliament of Ireland does not yield to any of his subjects in sincere and devout acknowledgments to Almighty God for the restoration of his majesty's health, and in fervent prayers that a long continuance of that blessing may secure to the people the happiness which they have constantly enjoyed under his majesty's mild and auspicious government."

Address of the House of Lords of Ireland to his Majesty.

Most gracious sovereign.

We, your majesty's most dutiful and loyal subjects, the lords spiritual and temporal in parliament assembled, embrace, with unfeigned and lively joy, this opportunity of renewing to your majesty our most dutiful and sincere professions of unalterable loyalty and affectionate attachment to your majesty's sacred person, family, and government; and of assuring your majesty, that we find ourselves unequal to express the ardent feelings of our hearts at the joyful communication, which, by your majesty's command, has been made to us, that it has pleased the divine Providence to remove from your majesty the severe indisposition with which you have been afflicted, and that you are now again enabled to attend to the urgent concerns of your kingdoms, and personally to exercise your royal authority: that, for these signal marks of divine favour, we shall not cease to pour out the lively effusions of gratitude and thanksgiving to the Almighty, who has vouchsafed, in the plenitude of his mercy and goodness, to restore our beloved monarch to the fervent and united prayers of his people.

We gratefully acknowledge your majesty's goodness, in the assurance you have been pleased to give us, that the prosperity of your loyal and faithful subjects of this kingdom must ever lie near to your heart.

We shall endeavour to justify the confidence which your majesty is pleased to repose in your parliament of Ireland, by a chearful concurrence in such wise and salutary measures as may enable your majesty to fulfil your gracious intentions of promoting the general interests and happiness of all your dominions.

We beg leave humbly to assure your majesty, that, sensible of the happiness which we have constantly enjoyed under your majesty's mild and auspicious government, we do not yield to any of your people in the sincerity with which we offer up our devout acknowledgments to Almighty God for your majesty's happy restoration to your former health; and that we shall unceasingly supplicate the Divine Providence for a long and uninterrupted continuance of that inestimable blessing.

His Majesty's Answer.

His majesty receives with the greatest satisfaction the dutiful and loyal address of the lords spiritual and

and temporal, in parliament aſſembled.

His majeſty accepts in the moſt gracious manner the renewal of their profeſſions of affectionate attachment to his perſon, family and government, and feels with the greateſt ſenſibility the joyful expreſſions of their hearts upon the interpoſition of divine Providence, in reſtoring him again to the perſonal exerciſe of his royal functions. The happineſs and proſperity of his faithful ſubjects in Ireland are objects very near his majeſty's heart; and he confides in the wiſdom of the parliament of that kingdom, that they will purſue ſuch meaſures as will enable him to fulfil his intentions of promoting the general intereſts of all his dominions.

Addreſs of the Houſe of Commons of Ireland to his Majeſty.

Moſt gracious ſovereign.

We, your majeſty's moſt dutiful and loyal ſubjects, the commons of Ireland, in parliament aſſembled, beg leave to lay before your majeſty our aſſurances of the ſincere and cordial ſatisfaction with which we are penetrated, on being informed from the throne, by your majeſty's command, that it has pleaſed the divine Providence to remove from your majeſty the ſevere indiſpoſition with which you have been afflicted; and that, by the bleſſing of Almighty God, you are now again enabled to attend to the urgent concerns of your kingdoms, and perſonally to exerciſe your royal authority.

Your majeſty entertains a juſt confidence that we ſhall chearfully proceed in making ſuch proviſion as may be neceſſary for the honourable ſupport of your majeſty's government.

We ſhould be dead to every generous feeling, ſhould we omit to acknowledge your majeſty's unceaſing ſolicitude for the intereſts of Ireland, or to ſecond, by every ſalutary effort, your benevolent wiſhes for the welfare of your people. The numerous bleſſings derived to this kingdom from your majeſty's auſpicious reign are deeply imprinted in our boſoms; and, ſenſible as we are of the ineſtimable value of their benefits, we beg leave to repeat to your majeſty upon this joyful occaſion, our moſt ſincere profeſſions of reſpect and attachment to your royal perſon, family, and government.

We conclude theſe our fervent congratulations with devout acknowledgments to the Almighty for this ſignal inſtance of his goodneſs, in reſtoring our beloved monarch to the prayers of an afflicted people. Our gratitude for ſuch a mark of the Divine Favour is only equalled by the ardency of our wiſhes for the continuance of your majeſty's health, and that your majeſty may enjoy that invaluable bleſſing during a long and happy reign.

His Majeſty's Anſwer.

His majeſty thanks his faithful commons for their loyal and affectionate addreſs, and for their aſſurances of the ſincere and cordial ſatisfaction which they feel on the interpoſition of Divine Providence in removing from him the ſevere indiſpoſition with which he has been afflicted.

Nothing can be more ſatisfactory to his majeſty than the diſpoſition expreſſed by the houſe of commons chearfully to proceed in making ſuch proviſions as are neceſſary for the honourable ſupport of his majeſty's government.

He receives with the greateſt

pleaſure the acknowledgments of the houſe of commons of their ſenſe of the ſolicitude which his majeſty can never ceaſe to entertain for the intereſts of Ireland, as well as their profeſſions of reſpect and attachment to his perſon, family, and government.

Addreſs of the Houſe of Commons of Ireland to the Prince of Wales, voted March 20, on Occaſion of the final Anſwer of his Royal Highneſs.

May it pleaſe your royal highneſs.

We, his majeſty's moſt dutiful and loyal ſubjects, the commons of Ireland in parliament aſſembled, beg leave to offer to your royal highneſs our warmeſt thanks for your anſwer to our addreſs.

With hearts overflowing with the livelieſt joy, we congratulate your royal highneſs upon the happy event of the king's recovery, and the conſequent re-aſſumption of the exerciſe of his auſpicious government; an event highly pleaſing to the ſubjects of the whole empire, but peculiarly grateful to a nation ſo highly indebted to their moſt excellent ſovereign during the whole courſe of his reign; and we rejoice in the reflection that the father of his people is bleſſed with a ſon, who is likely, in the fullneſs of time, to continue to his majeſty's loyal and affectionate ſubjects of Ireland the bleſſing of his government.

Thoroughly conſcious that nothing can add more to that eſteem which your royal highneſs has been pleaſed to expreſs for the two houſes of parliament, than their loyal and affectionate attachment to the perſon and government of the king, we will ſteadily perſevere in thoſe principles of duty, loyalty, and affection, which have ſo happily recommended them to the favourable opinion of your royal highneſs.

We feel the higheſt ſatisfaction in finding that what we have done, and our manner of doing it, have received your approbation, and that your royal highneſs is pleaſed to conſider our conduct as a proof of our undiminiſhed duty to his majeſty, our uniform attachment to the houſe of Brunſwick, and our conſtant care and attention to maintain inviolate the concord and connection between the kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland, which we conſider as indiſpenſably neceſſary to the proſperity, happineſs, and liberties of both; and we beg leave to aſſure your royal highneſs, that from thoſe principles we ſhall never depart.

We are happy to find that your royal highneſs conſiders our juſt attention to his majeſty's royal family, and the proviſion made by us for preſerving the authority of the crown in its conſtitutional energy, as the moſt unequivocal proofs which could be given of our affectionate loyalty to the beſt of ſovereigns, at the melancholy period when, by an afflicting diſpenſation of Providence, his government had ſuffered an intermiſſion, and his illuſtrious houſe was deprived of its great and natural protector.

We have the juſteſt reliance on the moderation of the views and purity of the intentions of your royal highneſs, and we have the fulleſt conviction in our minds that any truſt which could have the moſt diſtant tendency to relax that provident vigilance and public jealouſy which ought to watch over the exerciſe of power, would not have been

been acceptable to the exalted ſentiments of your royal highneſs, whoſe underſtanding and principles are rendered more valuable by the generous and affectionate heart which animates their dictates.

We can with the greateſt truth moſt ſolemnly aſſure your royal highneſs, that it is the ardent wiſh of the parliament and people of Ireland to continue to cultivate the harmony and inſeparable intereſts of the two kingdoms; firmly convinced that in their mutual perfect freedom they will find the cloſeſt as well as the happieſt bond of their connection; and we offer our warmeſt acknowledgments to your royal highneſs for your recommendation to us to perſevere in ſuch a conduct, and conſider your royal highneſs's recommendation, ſo worthy the high ſtation in which you are placed, as an additional proof of your attention to the welfare of both countries.

We aſſure your royal highneſs, that if any thing could add to the exultation of our minds at the happy event of the recovery of our moſt beloved ſovereign, it would be the pleaſure which we feel in reflecting, that the heir to his majeſty's crowns inherits the virtues of his royal father—virtues which every part of your royal highneſs's conduct, during the late melancholy and trying occaſion, has placed in the moſt illuſtrious point of view; and the repeated marks of graciouſneſs and condeſcenſion with which your royal highneſs has been pleaſed to honour the two houſes of parliament, muſt ever remain impreſſed in the moſt indelible characters of affection and gratitude on the hearts of the people of Ireland.

[An addreſs to the ſame effect was voted by the lords.]

Proteſts againſt the Addreſs of Thanks to the Prince of Wales, voted in the Iriſh Houſe of Lords, March 23.

DISSENTIENT,

Becauſe, although deſirous to expreſs our humble thanks to his royal highneſs the prince of Wales, for his gracious anſwer to the addreſs of both houſes of parliament, and that to a degree which might induce us to paſs over the departure which there ſeems to be in the mode and form of this addreſs from the uſual courſe and proceeding of parliament, yet we cannot agree to this addreſs, which doth not conſiſt, as we conceive, with thoſe conſtitutional principles which are maintained in our proteſts of February laſt, and to which we adhere.

Lifford C.
R. Dublin
Ranelagh
Chetwynd
Longford
Altamont
Harberton
Tyrone
Lanſborough
Wm. Oſſory
Glandore
Mountmorres.

DISSENTIENT,

1ſt, Becauſe the uniform and regular practice in this houſe has been, as appears from its earlieſt records, to paſs a ſhort vote of thanks for anſwers from the king to addreſſes of this houſe, to be laid before his majeſty by the lord lieutenant.

2dly, Becauſe that, on the 12th of December 1715, a committee which had been appointed to draw up an addreſs of thanks to his majeſty king George the Firſt, for his gracious anſwer to a congratulatory addreſs upon his acceſſion, were diſcharged from that duty, and a

ſhort vote of thanks for his majeſty's gracious anſwer was paſſed, to be tranſmitted by the lord lieutenant; ſince which time this method of proceeding has uniformly prevailed, except in the inſtances of anſwers which complied with requeſts from this houſe, or where royal aſſurance had been given of ſome great national benefits beſtowed, or intended to be conferred, upon this country; in which caſes, addreſſes of thanks have been preſented, of which only eight inſtances appear upon the journals of this houſe.

3dly, Becauſe the firſt inſtance of an addreſs of this deſcription, the 18th of Auguſt 1709, was in conſequence of her majeſty queen Anne having complied in her anſwer with a requeſt of this houſe conveyed by an addreſs; and on the 12th of December 1723, another inſtance occurs of a ſimilar addreſs of thanks, upon the royal aſſurance of the intended revocation of Wood's patent.

4thly, Becauſe that, on the 14th of December 1763, an addreſs, or vote of thanks, does not appear upon the journals, in conſequence of her majeſty's moſt gracious anſwer to a congratulary addreſs upon her marriage.

5thly, Becauſe, although his royal highneſs's anſwer to the addreſs of this houſe is moſt polite and gracious, yet it cannot be proved that any ſolid national benefit could be derived from it; and though it muſt be the wiſh and deſire of every loyal ſubject to pay every mark of reſpect to his royal highneſs, and to every branch of the royal family, I cannot agree to a mode of proceeding which indicates a greater compliment, and a greater degree of attention, than have uſually been paid to his majeſty and to his royal predeceſſors.

6thly, Becauſe the ſuppoſed exigency of the ſtate, which originate the proceedings upon a regency, i no more, and conſequently the mea ſure ſhould no longer be preſerve in public contemplation by addreſſe from parliament, which may have miſchievous tendency in future And becauſe, laſtly, that the lat wiſe, political, and judicious pro ceedings of the parliament of Grea Britain afford a memorable exampl well worthy of regard and attentio where proceedings upon the regen cy were ſuſpended, upon the repo of his majeſty's convaleſcence, an diſcharged and done away upon th happy and ſatisfactory confirmatio of his majeſty's perfect recovery an complete re-eſtabliſhment.

Mountmorre

Speech of the Lord Lieutenant to bo Houſes, on Monday, May 25.

My lords and gentlemen,

The buſineſs of this intereſtin ſeſſion being concluded, I am hap py to releaſe you from further a tendance in parliament, and communicate to you the ſtronge aſſurances of his majeſty's patern regard, and of the ſatisfaction h feels in the growing proſperity of h people of Ireland.

Gentlemen of the houſe of com mons,

In obedience to the king's com mands I am to thank you in his m jeſty's name for the ſupplies whic you have granted for the public ex gencies and for the ſupport of h majeſty's government; and you ma be aſſured of my care and attentio to the proper application of them.

My lords and gentlemen.

I behold with the higheſt ſatisfa tion the increaſing wealth and com merce of this kingdom, the natur effect of good order and of active i

duſtry, encouraged, protected, and extended by the ſeveral ſalutary laws which from time to time have been enacted for thoſe purpoſes. I am happy to think that a permanent foundation is laid for the further improvement of the country by the act now paſſed for the promotion and encouragement of inland navigation: a ſyſtem which, connected with the proſperous ſtate of your agriculture, promiſes, with the bleſſing of Divine Providence, to ſecure to every part of the kingdom the fulleſt enjoyment of that eſſential article of your commerce, the trade of corn.

You well know how greatly the intereſts of the nation are forwarded by the preſervation of peace, and by the enforcing a due ſubmiſſion to the laws: and I have the moſt perfect confidence, that upon your return to your reſpective counties you will impreſs theſe ideas on the minds of thoſe who look up to your example, and are directed by your influence. My conduct ſhall be uniformly governed by every principle which can tend to promote the welfare and happineſs of Ireland.

Account of the Meeting of the Merchants, Bankers, and Traders of the City of London, at the London Tavern, Jan. 7, 1789, by the Chairman who convened the Meeting.

London Tavern, Jan. 7, 1789.

At a numerous and reſpectable meeting held here this day by public advertiſement,

Samuel Beachcroft, eſq. was called to the chair.

The following motion was made and ſeconded, and, upon the queſtion being put, was carried in the affirmative by a great majority.

That the thanks of this meeting be given to the right hon. William Pitt, chancellor of the exchequer, for his able, ſpirited, and manly defence of the conſtitutional rights of this empire, and to thoſe members of the honourable houſe of commons who have ſupported him on the occaſion.

The addreſs will lay at this place for ſignatures between the hours of eleven and two o'clock, by ſuch gentlemen as may approve thereof.

SAMUEL BEACHCROFT, chairman.

Another Account of the Meeting at the London Tavern, by Mr. Alderman Pickett, who took the Chair, on the Seceſſion of Mr. Beachcroft.

London Tavern, Jan. 7, 1789.

At a meeting of the merchants, bankers, and traders of London held here this day,

Samuel Beachcroft, eſq. in the chair.

A motion was propoſed by Edward Payne, eſq. and ſeconded by William Waddington, eſq.

That an addreſs of thanks be preſented to the right hon. W. Pitt, for his able, ſpirited, and manly defence of the ſacred conſtitution of this empire, and to thoſe members of the honourable houſe of commons who ſupported him.

After a tumultuous debate, the queſtion was put, and the chairman thought proper to declare, on a ſhew of hands, that the majority was in favour of an addreſs.

The meeting being diſſatisfied, a diviſion was demanded by Mr. Stock, and ſeconded by Jacob Wilkinſon, eſq. which diviſion had been previouſly claimed by Mr. Alderman Skinner, and promiſed by the chairman; but while the tellers were naming, the chairman and his committee haſtily and abruptly withdrew.

A large

A large majority now called Mr. Alderman Pickett to the chair, on which the motion was again put, that a diviſion ſhould take place. Alderman Curtis was appointed teller for the queſtion—Mr. Stock againſt it.

The chairman then directed, that thoſe gentlemen who approved of the queſtion ſhould go to the right-hand; thoſe who diſapproved, to the left.

The tellers were directed to proceed to a diviſion, when Mr. Alderman Curtis ſuddenly left the room, without aſſigning any reaſon for ſo doing. The friends of the addreſs declined appointing another teller. Mr. Stock proceeded to aſcertain the numbers, when there appeared a very conſiderable majority againſt the addreſs.

A motion was now made by Mr. J. N. Mitchell, and ſeconded by Mr. Alderman Skinner, That the conduct of Mr. Beachcroft, in quitting the chair without waiting for the diviſion, was partial and highly cenſureable, which was carried by a great majority.

WILLIAM PICKETT.

The chairman having quitted the chair, a motion was put and carried, That the thanks of this meeting be given to Mr. Alderman Pickett, for his acceptance of, and impartial conduct in, the chair.

Speech of Samuel Beachcroft, Eſq. to the Right hon. William Pitt, on Thurſday, January 15, on preſenting to him the Vote of Thanks of the Merchants, Bankers, and Traders of the City of London.

Sir,

It is with the higheſt ſatisfaction that I preſent to you the vote of thanks of the merchants, bankers and traders of the city of London, convened by public advertiſement, at the London Tavern, on Wedneſday the 7th inſtant.

Although the reſolution I have now the honour to deliver to you, ſir, is confined to the ſingle object of your very able defence of the right of the two houſes of parliament to ſupply the defect in the legiſlature, occaſioned by the indiſpoſition of his majeſty, it was my wiſh, and I am perſuaded, it was the wiſh of many reſpectable gentlemen who attended that meeting, to have extended our thanks to the many advantages this country has derived from your wiſe and upright adminiſtration: particularly for your great attention to our commerce, to the improvement of the public revenue, and the advancement of public credit. But the confuſion that followed the determination of the meeting upon the queſtion, rendered any farther proceedings impracticable.

To which Mr. Pitt returned the following anſwer:

Downing-ſtreet, Jan. 17, 1789.

Sir

I take the liberty of addreſſing myſelf to you, as chairman of the meeting of merchants, bankers, and traders of the city of London, to expreſs the grateful ſenſe I entertain of the diſtinguiſhed honour done me by the declaration of their ſentiments contained in their reſolution of the 7th inſtant. I ſhall ever conſider it as one of the moſt flattering circumſtances of my life, to find my public conduct ſanctioned by the approbation of ſo numerous, and ſo peculiarly reſpectable a claſs of my fellow-citizens, the continuance of whoſe good opinion it will be my conſtant ambition to deſerve. I am more particularly happy in this mark of their concurrence, on an occaſion immediately affecting the moſt important rights of parliament,

and

d the eſſential principles of the nſtitution. Permit me, ſir, to ld, my warmeſt thanks to you, d the other gentlemen of the com- ittee, for the very favourable ex- eſſion of your ſentiments with hich you accompanied the commu- cation.

I have the honour to be,
with great regard and eſteem,
Sir,
your moſt obedient,
and faithful ſervant.
WILLIAM PITT.

AMUEL BEACHCROFT, eſq.

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lccount of a Meeting of the Inhabi- tants of the Borough of Southwark, Jan. 7.

Villiam Weſton, eſq. in the chair.

Reſolved, That it is the right and uty of the freemen of this land to eliver their ſentiments upon pub- ic meaſures, and upon the conduct f public men, as often as occaſion nay require.

Reſolved, That when perſons in- eſted with offices of great truſt and eſponſibility, diſcharge their duty vith firmneſs and integrity, they ought to be diſtinguiſhed by pub- ic approbation.

Reſolved, That the reſolution of he two houſes of parliament aſſert- ng their right to provide the means of ſupplying the defect of the royal authority, ariſing from his majeſ- y's indiſpoſition, appears to be conformable to the conſtitution, and deſerves the thanks of the whole Britiſh nation.

Reſolved, That a letter be deli- vered to the right hon. William Pitt, to expreſs the approbation of this meeting, of his public conduct on the event of the king's illneſs.

Reſolved, That the following let- ter be now read.

To the right hon. William Pitt, chancellor of the exchequer, and firſt commiſſioner of his majeſty's treaſury.

Sir,

When public occaſions have made it neceſſary for the people to de- clare their ſentiments of the mea- ſures of government, the inhabi- tants of the ancient town and bo- rough of Southwark, have not been remiſs in the exerciſe of that un- alienable privilege.

During an æra of great national felicity; at an hour dedicated to the commemoration of the glorious Revolution, which reſtored, and eſtabliſhed on a firmer baſis, the rights of the freemen of this em- pire; it pleaſed the Almighty to ſuffer that felicity to be interrupted.

The malady of our gracious ſo- vereign (lamented by all his ſub- jects) having, of neceſſity, ſuſpend- ed the exerciſe of his royal functions, a ſituation was produced, for which the wiſdom of our anceſtors had made no expreſs proviſion, and which had a natural tendency to excite great uneaſineſs and diſorder.

To provide for the public ſecuri- ty in ſuch a conjuncture, could be- long only to the two houſes of par- liament; and we truſt every ariſing exigency will be ſupplied by their wiſdom.

By reſorting to that authority, his majeſty's miniſters have equally demonſtrated their affection to the ſovereign and his royal houſe, and their reſpect for the conſtitutional rights of the people of this realm.

Whilſt the important truſts with which you ſtood inveſted, on this ſolemn occaſion, rendered you more deeply reſponſible to your country, we have had the happineſs to per- ceive, that your conduct has allay- ed the public apprehenſions, and hath produced that concord which,

in such a crisis, is of the last importance to the general safety.

The inhabitants of the borough of Southwark, in a meeting convened by public advertisement, have therefore agreed in a request, that you will be pleased to accept their thanks.

Resolved, That the letter now read, be signed by the chairman, and presented by him to Mr. Pitt.

Resolved, That these resolutions be printed in the public papers.

Resolved, That the thanks of this meeting be given to the chairman for his candour and impartiality.

WILLIAM WESTON,
Chairman.

Account of the Meeting of the Freeholders of Devonshire, at the Castle of Exeter on Friday, Jan. 16, 1789.

At a meeting of the high sheriff, gentlemen, clergy, and freeholders of the county of Devon, assembled by public notice, at the Castle of Exeter, on Friday January 16, 1789, during the quarter sessions, the following resolutions were agreed to.

Resolved, That we feel it our duty in the present alarming crisis, to declare that the right hon. William Pitt, has, in our opinion, justified by his conduct in office, that confidence in his ability and integrity, which this county expressed, at the time of his first appointment.

Resolved, That the thanks of this county be given to the right hon. William Pitt, for his wise, œconomical, and laborious discharge of the duties of his present situation, for his attention to our navigation, trade, and manufactures, and for his prudent and vigorous measures in the administration of foreign affairs; in consequence of which this country now enjoys, under the blessing of God, peace, plenty, an increasing opulence, extended commerce, security at home, and respect abroad, to a degree which has been unexampled since the administration of his illustrious father the earl of Chatham.

Resolved also, that the thanks of this county be given to him, for his whole conduct in consequence of that awful and calamitous event which suspends the exercise of the executive government; for having invariably asserted and maintained the rights of the people, and for his zealous and faithful attachment to the person and interest of our sovereign, particularly manifested in the anxiety which he has shewn for enabling his majesty with returning health, to re-assume without embarrassment, the full exercise of his constitutional authority over a free and loyal people.

Resolved, That the sheriff be desired to communicate these resolutions to Mr. Pitt, and to cause them to be inserted in the public papers.

Resolved, That sir John Chichester, bart. high sheriff for the county; the right hon. lord Fortescue lord lieutenant; and J. Rolle, and J. P. Bastard, esqrs. members for this county, be desired to wait upon the regent immediately after his appointment, with the following humble address, submitting to his royal highness, in the most respectful manner, the earnest and anxious wish of this county for the continuance of his majesty's present ministers, as enjoying the marked approbation of their sovereign, the confidence of both houses of parliament, and the general good opinion of the country.

To

To his royal highneſs George Prince of Wales, regent.

We, the high ſheriff, gentlemen, ergy, and freeholders of the coun- of Devon, aſſembled by public otice, at the Caſtle of Exeter, dur- ng the quarter ſeſſions, beg leave umbly to approach your royal ighneſs with the moſt unfeigned entiments of duty and reſpect; and o declare, that whilſt we deplore ne preſent calamitous ſituation of ne country, ariſing from his ma- eſty's indiſpoſition, we are anxious o expreſs the happineſs and confi- ence we feel in finding the execu- ve government of the ſtate com- itted to the care and protection f your royal highneſs, whoſe ſitu- tion and diſtinguiſhed virtues ſo minently entitle your royal high- eſs to that high and momentous ruſt.

With every attachment that can ind a grateful people to the houſe f Brunſwick; with the moſt entire onfidence that your royal highneſs an have no other object than the ommon welfare of the ſovereign nd the people, and feeling in com- non with all our fellow-ſubjects, he good effects of thoſe wiſe and pright meaſures which have diſ- inguiſhed the preſent ſervants of is majeſty, we beg leave to ex- preſs our earneſt hopes, that your oyal highneſs may continue that onfidence to them, which they ave ſo juſtly enjoyed under your lluſtrious father.

Account of a Meeting of the Freeholders of the County of Northumberland, at Morpeth, on the 21ſt of January.

Morpeth, January 21, 1789.

At a meeting of the gentlemen, lergy, and freeholders of the coun- y of Northumberland, held here this day, Gawen Aynſley, eſq. in the chair, a motion was propoſed by Rowland Burden, eſq. and ſeconded by William Ord, of Fenham, eſq. that an addreſs of thanks be preſented to the right hon. William Pitt, for his conduct in parliament on the preſent emergency. This motion being put, was negatived almoſt unanimouſly.

A motion was then made by Jonathan Thompſon, eſq. and ſeconded by ſir H. G. Liddell, bart. that the thanks of this meeting be given to ſir William Middleton, bart. and Charles Grey, eſq. our worthy repreſentatives, for their conduct in parliament; which motion the chairman refuſing to put, he and his friends left the Town-hall abruptly.

Sir Henry George Liddell being then called to the chair, the ſame motion was put and carried nemine contradicente; and the following reſolutions were then agreed to.

Sir Henry George Liddel, bart. in the chair.

Reſolved, That the thanks of this meeting be given to ſir William Middleton, bart. and Charles Grey, eſq. our worthy repreſentatives for their conduct in parliament.

That the thanks of this meeting be given to ſir Francis Blake, bart. and ſir Charles Grey, K. B. for the trouble they have taken in explaining the true principles of the conſtitution, and declaring the real rights of the people.

That the thanks of this meeting be given to John Ord, of Weetwood, eſq. and Jonathan Thompſon, eſq. for their great exertions at this meeting.

That (the chairman having quitted the chair) the thanks of this meeting be given to ſir Henry George Liddell, bart. for his acceptance of, and impartial conduct in the chair; and that he be requeſted

requeſted to ſign the above reſolutions, and cauſe the ſame to be inſerted in the London, Newcaſtle, and every other newſpaper in this kingdom.

H. G. LIDDEL.

Account of the Meeting of the Freeholders of the County of Southampton, at Wincheſter, on Monday, Feb. 9.

The requiſition for calling this meeting, was ſigned Portcheſter, William Jolliffe, Hans Sloane, G. Darby, Thomas Fitzherbert, Thomas Miller, Vernon Sadleir, Ben. Caldwell, J. Lockman, Maſter of St. Croſs, C. Powlette, R. J. Sayer, William Neville, C. K. Herbert, Bolton, Stawell, N. Ogle, dean of Wincheſter, John Ruſſel, Chaloner Ogle, and Robert Kingſmill.

In conſequence of this requiſition, Richard Brickendon, eſq. the high ſheriff, appointed the meeting at the county-hall, in Wincheſter, on Monday Feb. 9, and due notice was given by repeated advertiſements in the public papers.

On the day appointed, at twelve o'clock, the ſheriff, attended by a large party of noblemen, gentlemen, clergy, and freeholders, proceeded to the hall, and opened the buſineſs of the day by explaining the purport of the meeting.

Sir Thomas Miller then moved an addreſs to the prince of Wales, to be preſented on his royal highneſs's aſſumption of the regency. The motion was ſeconded by Mr. Sotheby. The following addreſs was then read to the meeting by the high ſheriff.

The Addreſs of the Nobility, Gentlemen, Clergy, and Freeholders of the County of Southampton, aſſembled by public Advertiſement from the High Sheriff, at the County Hall, in the City of Wincheſter, on Monday the 9th of February, 1789.

We, his majeſty's moſt dutiful and loyal ſubjects, the nobility, gentlemen, clergy, and freeholders of the county of Southampton, humbly beg leave to approach your royal highneſs with our moſt ſincere condolence on the heavy calamity with which it has pleaſed God to afflict our beloved ſovereign, your royal father; and at the ſame time to expreſs our warmeſt gratitude for the generous manner in which your royal highneſs has conſented to undertake the ardous taſk of government, rendered more difficult by the deprivation of powers hitherto deemed eſſentially neceſſary to the good government and well-being of the ſtate.

Whilſt we view, with admiration, your royal highneſs's conduct on this awful event, we acknowledge with heartfelt ſatisfaction, the irreſiſtible claim to our ſtrongeſt attachment, which your avowed principles of government muſt implant in the breaſt of a generous, affectionate and free people.

We cannot but feel the moſt perfect ſecurity, and unbounded confidence, in the future government of a prince, by whom, "the prerogatives of the crown, are conſidered as a truſt for the benefit of the people, and ſacred only as experience has proved them neceſſary to ſecure their liberties." Theſe, your royal highneſs's ſentiments, ſo congenial to the ſpirit of our free conſtitution, are the welcome pledges of thoſe patriotic virtues which open to us, amidſt the preſent gloom, a pleaſing proſpect of national happineſs and proſperity. The principles of civil liberty eſtabliſhed at the Revolution, and

ſecured

cured by the acceſſion of the houſe Brunſwick, teach us that the eedom of our happy conſtitution, nnot be confirmed to us, by en- rvating the arm of government, it by maintaining the juſt di- ibution of political power, nongſt the ſeveral orders of the ate, in the preſervation of whoſe e balance, and reſpective vigour d energy, the king and people e equally intereſted.

Deeply impreſſed with this inion, we beg leave to declare e ſatisfaction we feel in ſeeing the ecutive power at length veſted your royal highneſs; truſting at as the reſtrictions and limita- ons which neceſſarily abate its rce, are avowedly calculated for ſhort duration, we may ſpeedily e reſtored to the full enjoyment a conſtitution, to which we are alouſly attached; and we are con- dent that we ſpeak the language a free and loyal people, when e declare our firm determination maintain the juſt rights of the own, as defined at the Revolution, nd to tranſmit unimpaired to our oſterity, the benefit of thoſe laws, nd of that conſtitution, which our nceſtors have purchaſed with their lood.

The queſtion for the addreſs was en put, and carried with only two iſſenting voices.

As ſoon as the addreſs had been eclared to be carried, Mr. Poulter oſe, and propoſed the following etition to the houſe of commons gainſt Mr. Pitt's regency bill.

To the honourable the Commons of Great Britain, in Parliament aſ- ſembled.

The Petition of the Nobility, Gen- tlemen, Clergy, and Freeholders of the County of Southampton.

Humbly ſheweth,

That they are perfectly ſenſi- ble, that it is the right and duty of parliament to provide, during the continuance of his majeſty's preſent unhappy malady, for ſecuring to the ſubjects the full benefit of a go- vernment of energy and effect, in a manner conſiſtent with the happy conſtitution of this kingdom, with the peace and unity of the whole Britiſh empire, and with the unin- terrupted exerciſe of royal pow- er in the houſe of Brunſwick.

That they ſee in a bill, entitled, "A bill to provide for the care of his majeſty's royal perſon, and for the adminiſtration of the royal authority, during the continuance of his majeſty's illneſs," certain pro- viſions and regulations which have created in them a ſenſible alarm, leſt thoſe parliamentary powers, rights, and duties, ſhould not be exerciſed in a caſe of the higheſt importance to the public ſafety and welfare.

They therefore humbly pray, that in the proviſions which ſhall be made for aſcertaining the return of his majeſty's capacity for the per- ſonal exerciſe of his government, and the proviſions which ſhall be made for the reſumption of the ſame, parliament ſhall not relin- quiſh thoſe powers which they hold in truſt for the people, nor dele- gate into the hands of any indivi- dual or deſcription of men thoſe parliamentary functions, and thoſe means of parliamentary enquiry, which have been juſtly deemed ne- ceſſary, when the exerciſe of his majeſty's perſonal authority was ſuſpended; leſt alterations in go- vernment made under doubtful and ſuſpicious circumſtances, ſhould deſ- troy all confidence in government, and abate its neceſſary force and vigour; and that in all proviſions which ſhall be made in the inter- mediate time, care ſhould be taken that nothing ſhould be eſtabliſhed

which

which ſhall tend to weaken, diſtract, and divide the temporary government, or deſtroy the harmony that ought to prevail in the royal family.

The queſtion being put was carried with only five diſſenting voices.

The thanks of the meeting were then unanimouſly voted to the high ſheriff for his conduct.

The Petition of certain Electors of the City of Weſtminſter, ſigned by Five Thouſand and Four Perſons, and preſented to the Houſe of Lords, by Earl Spencer, on Tueſday Feb. 17.

To the right hon. the lords ſpiritual and temporal in parliament aſſembled.

The humble petition of the ſeveral perſons whoſe names are hereunto ſubſcribed, inhabitants, houſekeepers, and electors of the city of Weſtminſter,

Sheweth,

That in the deplorable and melancholy exigency in which this country, by the viſitation of Providence on the perſon of our beloved ſovereign, is unhappily placed, we feel a firm and a confident perſuaſion, that no effectual relief can be obtained from the diſtreſsful circumſtances under which we labour, but by the interpoſition of the wiſdom, integrity, and authority of the two houſes of parliament in this calamitous ſtate of public affairs.

That the mode in which ſuch wiſdom, integrity, and authority, can be moſt conſtitutionally exerciſed, we do not deem it at all expedient for us now to point out, but earneſtly deprecate that part of the propoſed plan, which by excluding from her majeſty's council, thoſe branches of the royal family, which are moſt peculiarly intereſted in the preſervation of the royal dignity and ju rights of the crown, withdraw from our ſovereign the endearin ſupport of his natural connections denies to her majeſty the aſſiſtanc of her moſt diſintereſted adviſer and deprives the people of their be ſecurity for the faithful diſcharge o the duties impoſed by this importan truſt.

That the ſeparation of the whol patronage and influence of the houſe hold, from the executive authority under pretence of conſulting th perſonal comfort of his majeſty, i founded on principles of intrigu and cabal, tending to undermin the government of the country, an conveys a direct inſult on his majeſ ty himſelf, by ſuppoſing it poſſibl that his majeſty ſhould be more in fluenced by conſiderations affectin the pageantry of his court, than b an attention to the political ſervice o the ſtate, and the true happineſs o his people.

That we humbly conceive, that a the proviſions of the bill, which ex tend the care of her majeſty beyon the circle of domeſtic duty, and per ſonal attention to her royal confort threaten to involve her majeſty i thoſe intrigues and cabals, which b the uniform tenor and habits of he life her majeſty has hitherto avoided That all the proviſions of the ſai bill, which give to any perſon o perſons whatſoever any authorit publicly to notify his majeſty's hap py recovery, before the ſame ſhal have been duly certified, and prove to the ſatisfaction of the two houſe of parliament, are highly degradin to thoſe reſpectable aſſemblies, an calculated to impreſs the world wit an opinion, that after the painfu taſk in which the ſaid houſes hav been engaged in aſcertaining th unfortunate malady with which hi majeſty is afflicted, they are unwor

th

thy to be intruſted with the more grateful taſk of announcing to the world, in a manner free from all poſſibility of ſuſpicion, the pleaſing tidings of his majeſty's reſtoration to health, agreeably to the ardent and united wiſhes of his loyal people.

That, obſerving the ſpirit in which theſe regulations have been planned, we cannot but entertain the moſt ſerious apprehenſions, that, unleſs parliament itſelf is made the direct channel of notifying his majeſty's recovery (whenever, by the bleſſing of providence, that wiſhed-for moment ſhall arrive), and the moſt indiſputable proofs are adduced of that happpy event, ſome arrangements may be adopted which the future ſtate of his majeſty's health may make it equally difficult for parliament to change, or for the country to ſubmit to without endangering the welfare and proſperity of the kingdom.

Under all theſe circumſtances we earneſtly pray, that this right honourable houſe, in the proviſions which ſhall be made for aſcertaining the return of his majeſty's capacity for the perſonal exerciſe of his government, and for his re-aſſumption thereof, ſhall not make an unconſtitutional ſurrender of their own ſituations, nor delegate into the hands of a partial deſcription of private individuals, the great and high duties repoſed in them for the general benefit of the ſubject, and, in particular, that they will not reſign that moſt ſacred and invaluable power, the right of parliamentary enquiry; without the full and free exerciſe of which, the people can have no ſecurity of obtaining certain and authentic information concerning the real ſituation of their ſovereign, and the future and actual ſtate of his unhappy malady.

That in all proviſions which ſhall be made during the intermediate time, care ſhall be taken, that nothing may be eſtabliſhed, which ſhall tend to weaken, diſtract, and divide the temporary government, or deſtroy the harmony that ought to prevail amongſt the different branches of the royal family.

Addreſs voted by the Heretors and Burgeſſes of the Burgh of Kinghorn, in Scotland, to be preſented to the Prince of Wales, on the Event of his aſſuming the Regency.

To his royal highneſs the prince of Wales.

The humble addreſs of the heretors and burgeſſes of the burgh of Kinghorn.

We, the heretors and burgeſſes of the burgh of Kinghorn, beg leave to approach your royal highneſs, and to ſympathize with you, and the other branches of your illuſtrious family, upon the melancholy ſtate of his majeſty's health, which has rendered the elevation of your royal highneſs to your preſent ſituation neceſſary.

At the ſame time we congratulate ourſelves, and the nation in general, that upon ſo unhappy a criſis we have an heir apparent to the throne, who is every way qualified to fill it with honour to himſelf, and for the happineſs and proſperity of theſe kingdoms, while it ſhall pleaſe God to continue his afflicting hand upon our beloved ſovereign.

The unequivocal demonſtrations which your royal highneſs has already given of your firm attachment to the principles of the glorious revolution, afford us the moſt ſatisfactory proof that you not only underſtand our happy conſtitution, but will, to the beſt of your power,

with the aid of such persons as you shall call to the administration of public affairs, and the firm support of a loyal and affectionate people, maintain it pure and uncorrupted, during the period of your present high trust, and that you will not forsake those principles, nor forget that conduct, when it shall please the Almighty to place an unfetterred diadem upon your brow.

Address voted by the Magistrates and Town Council of the Burgh of Burnt-Island, to be presented to the Prince of Wales, on the same Occasion.

We, the magistrates and council of the burgh of Burnt Island beg leave to approach your royal highness, on the present afflicting situation of these kingdoms, over which your royal highness was born to govern, and to mingle with our fellow-citizens our heart-felt lamentations for the dreadful calamity with which your royal father is afflicted. We trust that it will please Almighty God soon to restore our gracious sovereign to his wonted health, that he may resume and occupy the functions of his high and exalted station.

Under the pressure of this national calamity, we feel ourselves animated and supported in the fullest conviction of your royal highness possessing, in an eminent degree, those princely virtues, those matured and well-cultivated talents, which render you able to preserve, to the subjects of these kingdoms, the invaluable blessings which they have enjoyed under the mild and constitutional government of your illustrious house. Anxious in our wishes and ardent in our prayers for that happy period which may restore the health of our sovereign, we confide in the wisdom of your royal highness, to place, during the continuance of the king's illness, in the high and important offices of the state, men, in whom, from well-tried experience, your royal highness can repose trust; ministers devoted by principle to the sacred constitution of their country, and attached by the purest motives of regard and affection to your royal person and dignity. Whilst, with due humility we lay at your feet, sentiments of the deepest sorrow and concern for the distress of the royal family, permit us to assure your royal highness of our firm and unalterable attachment to your person; and the true government of the realm under your auspicious conduct; and that we shall be ready with our lives and fortunes to maintain the establishment in church and state, as recognized at the glorious æra of the Revolution, and supported and strengthened in the illustrious house of Hanover.

Address of the Lord Mayor, Aldermen, and Common Council, of the City of London, to his Majesty, on the happy Occasion of his Recovery, March 19. (See Public Occurrences, page (11) and (12).)

May it please your majesty,

We, the lord mayor, aldermen and commons of the city of London, in common council assembled, beg leave humbly to approach the throne with the most heart-felt emotions of joy and exultation.

We cannot sufficiently express our deep and awful sense of the signal instance of the goodness of Divine Providence to these highly favoured kingdoms, in restoring the health of our most gracious sovereign to the ardent prayers of his people.

Your

Your majesty's faithful citizens of London, at all times eager to testify their loyalty, are more particularly anxious to offer their renewed assurances of fidelity and attachment, in a moment which has rescued them from despondency, and blessed them with an opportunity to offer the tribute nearest their hearts.

And we earnestly supplicate the Great Disposer of all events, that your majesty may long continue the happy instrument of preserving, in the most exalted degree, the civil and religious liberties of a free, loyal, and grateful nation.

Signed by order of the court.

WILLIAM RIX.

His Majesty's Answer.

I thank you for this fresh mark of your loyalty and of your affection for my person. The expressions of fidelity and attachment, which I receive from my loving subjects, are most grateful to me.

The city of London may always depend upon my watchful attention to their liberties, commerce, and happiness.

Address of the Lord Mayor, Aldermen, and Common Council of the City of London, to her Majesty, on the same happy Occasion.

May it please your majesty to permit us, the lord mayor, aldermen, and commons of the city of London, in common council assembled, to offer our most sincere congratulations to your majesty on the auspicious recovery of our most gracious sovereign.

Impressed with the most sympathising affections, we have not the power to convey how much we participate in the general felicity, of which your majesty must enjoy so large a share.

That the king may long be preserved in his sacred and exalted station, not less revered for his domestic virtues than for the dominion he holds in the hearts of a loyal and happy people, is the sincere prayer of the citizens of London.

There never was a period when the citizens of London felt the value of their privilege to address the throne in so eminent a degree as the present, which has enabled them to dwell with such heartfelt emphasis on an event so propitious to their country, so peculiarly interesting and effectually consolatory to the best of queens.

Signed by order of the court,

WILLIAM RIX.

Her Majesty's Answer.

I thank you for this mark of duty to the king and attention to me. I receive your congratulations with a sincere and heartfelt pleasure on the present joyful occasion; and I can assure you that the city of London will ever have my best wishes for its prosperity and happiness.

The humble Address of the Lord Mayor, Sheriffs, Commons, and Citizens of the City of Dublin, in Common Council assembled, on the same Occasion.

May it please your majesty,

We, your dutiful and ever loyal subjects, the lord mayor, sheriffs commons, and citizens of the city of Dublin, humbly offer our congratulations on your majesty's recovery from your late severe indisposition, and beg leave to express how deeply sensible we are of the inestimable value of your majesty's life and health to your faithful people.

The earneſtneſs and fervor with which we looked for the happy times that have now returned, are only to be equalled by the ſincerity with which we pray Almighty God, that your majeſty may long flouriſh a revered, beloved, patriot king.

The worth of a ſovereign ſo mild, a parent ſo provident, and a friend ſo true, was never before ſo fully underſtood, until he was loſt for ever; but it is the peculiar bleſſing of your faithful ſubjects, that they are awakened to a due ſenſe of your majeſty's great and endearing qualities, ere it is too late, and whilſt our country continues to proſper under their benign influence.

The afflictions of your loyal citizens of Dublin grew the more poignant during your majeſty's late illneſs, as we reflected, that nothing but a care for the public weal, too active and inceſſant, had borne down your ſtrength, and cauſed you to faint in the ſervice of your people.

Return then, ſire, with renovated vigour of mind and body, to attain the glorious ends to which your auſpicious reign has been directed; live long the ſupporter of the law, the approved patron and defender of civil and religious liberty.

Never before did your people experience anguiſh occaſioned by your majeſty: may this we have taſted be accounted our ſhare of the bitter cup; and let the tranſit of our good and gracious king from his throne of Ireland to a throne eternal, in the ripeneſs of time, and in the fulneſs of his fame, be reſerved for the portion of a future generation.

In teſtimony whereof we have cauſed the common ſeal of the ſaid city to be hereunto affixed, this 23d day of March, 1789.

Addreſs of the Proteſtant and Roma Catholic Inhabitants of Waterfor to the King, on the ſame Occaſio

May it pleaſe your majeſty,

We, your majeſty's moſt dutifu and loyal ſubjects the freemen, free holders, Proteſtant and Roman ca tholic inhabitants of the county o the city of Waterford in the kingdom of Ireland, beg leave to preſent ou humble congratulations on the happ reſtoration of your majeſty's health

We are awfully impreſſed wit the ineſtimable goodneſs of Divin Providence, who, indulgent to th ardent prayers of your loyal and a fectionate ſubjects, has reſtored you majeſty to a free and happy people

In common with all your maje ty's ſubjects throughout your ex tended dominions, we participate i the joy that at preſent univerſall prevails, and with which we ar ſtill the more ſenſibly affected whe we contemplate the ſolid ſyſtem o conſtitutional and commercial righ that has been eſtabliſhed for th kingdom during your majeſty's au ſpicious reign.

Since the acceſſion of your maje ty to the government of the realms, the conſtant operation o thoſe principles of liberty, whic have ever characterized the hou of Brunſwick, and a ſucceſſion o happy events, conducted under wi councils, have improved the conſt tution, and extended the commerc of this country to ſuch a degree o excellence and importance, as to en able it now to conſtitute one of th moſt valuable portions of your ma jeſty's empire.

When we look back to the form er ſituation of this country, an when we reflect on the many bleſ ings revived under your majeſty mild and happy government, w

are bound to pray to Divine Providence that your reign may be long, prosperous, and happy.

Signed, by order,
WILLIAM ROACH, } Sheriffs.
JOHN DENIS, }

Address of the Bishop and Clergy of the Diocese of Llandaff to the King, on the same Occasion.

Most gracious sovereign,

We, the bishop, archdeacon and chapter, and clergy of the diocese of Llandaff, your majesty's most dutiful subjects, humbly, and with hearty thanksgivings to Almighty God, beg leave to congratulate your majesty on the recovery which he in his mercy hath vouchsafed to you, from a long and singularly afflicting indisposition.

We are persuaded that no congratulations on any occasion were ever offered to any of your majesty's predecessors with more cordial sincerity, and more perfect unanimity, than those will be, which a free, a loyal, and an affectionate people will present to your majesty on this event: it is an event highly interesting to every branch of your majesty's family, and to every friend of the house of Brunswick.

The happiness of men, who have the misfortune to live under despotic governments, depends more on the good disposition of their ruler, than on the nature of their civil constitution, whilst that of men, who live under free governments, is more dependent on the principles of their constitution than on the virtues of their prince. How happy then may our situation justly be esteemed! We certainly live under the best form of civil government that ever was established in the world; and we have the comfort of knowing that it is administered by a king, whose virtues, public and private, would render even despotism itself not destructive of the happiness of the human kind.

May God, in his good providence, long continue to us the blessing of your majesty's life and health, and preserve to our latest posterity the blessing of the British constitution.

Address of the Bishop and Clergy of the Diocese of Llandaff to the Queen, on the same Occasion.

Most gracious queen,

We, the bishop, archdeacon and chapter, and clergy of the diocese of Llandaff, entreat your majesty graciously to accept our congratulations on the king's recovery from his late indisposition. They are tendered to your majesty with the utmost truth.

The comforts of domestic life are natural and sincere; all persons, in all ranks, equally feel the importance of possessing them, are equally afflicted by their interruption or loss: we firmly believe that every family in the kingdom sympathised with your majesty in your late distress; and that they all participate in your present felicity.

Sensible of the influence of royal example, we always thought that your majesty was entitled to the thanks of this kingdom for the proofs you have uniformly given, during a long residence amongst us, of the sincerity of your piety, of the amiableness and purity of your manners, as a queen, as a wife, and as a mother: but if your majesty could have claimed our regard on no other account, the tenderness and concern you have shown for a beloved monarch, during his late unhappy

ſituation, would have ſecured to you the grateful attachment of a loyal people.

We obſerved in the deliberations of parliament a great diverſity of opinion, as to the moſt conſtitutional mode of protecting the rights of the ſovereign during the continuance of his indiſpoſition; but we obſerved none whatever as to the neceſſity of doing it in the moſt effectual manner. This circumſtance cannot fail of giving ſolid ſatisfaction to your majeſty; for, next to the conſolation of believing that, in his recovery, he has been the eſpecial object of God's mercy, muſt be that of knowing, that, during his illneſs, he was the peculiar object of his people's love; that he reigns over a free, a great, and an enlightened nation, not more by the laws of the land than by the wiſhes of all his ſubjects.

We have long known, and ſhall always admire, your amiable character, and your eminent wiſdom, as we wiſh to imitate your wiſe and unrivalled conduct.

We pray to God, that happineſs may be continued to your majeſty and the royal family; and that thoſe virtues, which we revere with the utmoſt gratitude, may be remembered and imitated to the lateſt age.

This humble addreſs, unanimouſly reſolved on at a numerous and reſpectable aſſembly met in Banff, the 13th day of March, 1789, is appointed to be ſent to the ducheſs of Gordon, that her grace may have the honour of ſigning it in our names, and preſenting it to her majeſty.

J. GORDON.

Addreſs of the Nobility, Ladies, and Gentlewomen of the County and Town of Banff, to the Queen, on the ſame Occaſion.

May it pleaſe your majeſty,

We, the nobility, ladies, and gentlewomen of the county and town of Banff, dutiful, loyal, and affectionate ſubjects to our moſt gracious ſovereign, beg leave humbly to approach your majeſty with our warmeſt expreſſions of joy for the happy recovery of the beſt of kings; an event, under God, the greateſt bleſſing to his attached and faithful people.

We congratulate your majeſty on this joyful occaſion, and pray to God that he may long preſerve his majeſty's life, and the life of his royal conſort, whom we look up to as the patroneſs of piety, virtue, and exemplary religious duties.

The Petition of the Engliſh Catholic Diſſenters to the Houſe of Commons, preſented May 7.

Sheweth,

That ſentiments unfavourable to your petitioners, as citizens and ſubjects, have been entertained by Engliſh proteſtants, and that your petitioners are ſubject to various penal laws, on account of principles which are aſſerted to be maintained by your petitioners, and other perſons of their religion, and which principles are dangerous to ſociety and totally repugnant to political and civil liberty.

That your petitioners think it a duty which they owe to their country, as well as to themſelves, to proteſt in a formal and ſolemn manner againſt doctrines that they condemn, and that conſtitute no part whatever of their principles, religion, or belief.

That your petitioners are the more

more anxious to free themſelves from ſuch imputations, becauſe divers proteſtants, who profeſs themſelves to be real friends to liberty of conſcience, have nevertheleſs avowed themſelves hoſtile to your petitioners, on account of the opinions which your petitioners are ſo ſuppoſed to hold; and your petitioners do not blame thoſe proteſtants for their hoſtility, if it proceeds (as your petitioners hope it does) not from an intolerant ſpirit in matters of religion, but from their being miſinformed as to matters of fact.

That your petitioners acknowledge that they ſhould merit the reproach of being dangerous enemies to the ſtate, if it were true, that they had adopted the maxims that are erroneouſly imputed to them; but your petitioners deteſt thoſe unchriſtianlike and execrable maxims; and your petitioners ſeverally claim (in common with men of all other religions) as a matter of natural juſtice, that your petitioners ought not to ſuffer for or on account of any wicked erroneous doctrines that may have been holden, or that may be held by any foreign Roman catholics, which doctrines your petitioners publicly diſclaim; any more than any of the Britiſh proteſtants ought to be rendered reſponſible for any dangerous doctrines that may be held by any foreign proteſtants, which doctrines they, the ſaid Britiſh proteſtants, diſavow.

I. That your petitioners have been accuſed of holding, as a principle of their religion, that princes excommunicated by the pope and council, or by authority of the ſee of Rome, may be depoſed or murdered by their ſubjects, or other perſons. But, ſo far is the above mentioned unchriſtianlike and abominable poſition from being a prinple, that your petitioners hol', that they reject, abhor, and deteſt it, and every part thereof, as execrable and impious; and your petitioners do ſolemnly declare, that neither the pope, either with or without a general council, nor any prelate, nor any prieſt, nor any aſſembly of prelates or prieſts, nor any eccleſiaſtical power whatever, can abſolve the ſubjects of this realm, or any of them, from their allegiance to his majeſty king George the Third, who is, by authority of the legiſlature, the lawful king of this realm, and of all the dominions thereunto belonging.

II. That your petitioners have alſo been accuſed of holding, as a principle of their religion, that implicit obedience is due from them to the orders and decrees of popes and general councils: and that, therefore, if the pope, or any general council, ſhould, for the good of the church, command your petitioners to take up arms againſt government, or by any means to ſubvert the laws and liberties of this country, or to exterminate perſons of a different religion from your petitioners, the accuſers of your petitioners aſſert, that your petitioners hold themſelves bound to obey ſuch orders or decrees on pain of eternal fire. Whereas your petitioners poſitively deny, that they owe any ſuch obedience to the pope and general council, or to either of them: and your petitioners believe that no act that is in itſelf immoral or diſhoneſt can ever be juſtified by, or under colour that it is done, either for the good of the church, or in obedience to any eccleſiaſtical power whatever. Your petitioners acknowledge no infallibility in the pope; and they neither apprehend nor believe, that their diſobedience to any ſuch orders or decrees (ſhould any ſuch be given or made) could

ſubject your petioners to any puniſhment whatſoever. That your petitioners do ſolemnly declare, that no church, nor any prelate, nor any prieſt, nor any aſſembly of prelates or prieſts, nor any eccleſiaſtical power whatever, hath, have, or ought to have any juriſdiction or authority whatſoever within this realm, that can, directly or indirectly, affect or interfere with the independence, ſovereignty, laws, conſtitution, or government thereof, or the rights, liberties, perſons, or properties, of the people of the ſaid realm, or of any of them; ſave only and except by the authority of parliament; and that any ſuch aſſumption of power would be an uſurpation.

III. That your petitioners have likewiſe been accuſed of holding as a principle of their religion, that the pope, by virtue of his ſpiritual power, can diſpenſe with the obligations of any compact or oath taken or entered into by any perſon of the religion of your petitioners; that therefore, no oath of allegiance, or other oath, can bind your petitioners, and conſequently, that your petitioners can give no ſecurity for their allegiance to any government.—That your petitioners admit that this concluſion would be juſt, if the original propoſition, upon which it is founded, were true: but your petitioners poſitively deny, that they hold any ſuch principle; and they do ſolemnly declare, that neither the pope, nor any prelate, nor any prieſt, nor any aſſembly of prelates or prieſts, nor any eccleſiaſtical power whatever, can abſolve your petitioners, or any of them from, or can previouſly or ſubſequently diſpenſe with the obligations of any compact or oath whatſoever

IV. That your petitioners have alſo been accuſed of holding, as a principle of their religion, that not only the pope, but even a prieſt, has power, at his will and pleaſure, to pardon the ſins of perſons of the religion of your petitioners; and therefore, that no perſon of the religion of your petitioners can poſſibly give any ſecurity for his allegiance to any government; inaſmuch as the pope, or a prieſt, can pardon perjury, rebellion, and high treaſon. That your petitioners acknowledge alſo, the juſtneſs of this concluſion if the propoſition upon which it is founded, were not totally falſe; but your petitioners do ſolemnly declare, that on the contrary, they believe that no ſin whatever, can be forgiven at the will of any pope, or of any prieſt, of any perſon whomſoever: but that a ſincere ſorrow for paſt ſin, a firm reſolution to avoid future guilt, and every poſſible atonement to God, and the injured neighbour, are the previous and indiſpenſable requiſites to eſtabliſh a well-founded expectation of forgiveneſs.

V. That your petitioners have alſo been accuſed of holding, as a principle of their religion, that faith is not to be kept with heretics; ſo that no government, which does not profeſs the ſame religion as your petitioners, can have any ſecurity from your petitioners for their allegiance and peaceable behaviour. That your petitioners reject, reprobate, and abhor the doctrine, that faith is not to be kept with heretics, as being contrary to religion, morality, and common honeſty. And your petitioners do hold and ſolemnly declare, that no breach of faith with, or injury to, or hoſtility againſt, any perſon whomſoever, can ever be juſtified by reaſon of, or under pretence, that ſuch perſon is an heretic or an infidel.

That

That your petitioners further ſolemnly declare, that they do make this declaration and proteſtation, and every part thereof, in the plain and ordinary ſenſe of the words of the ſame, without any evaſion, equivocation, or mental reſervation whatſoever. And that your petitioners humbly conceive, that your petitioners, who thus ſolemnly diſclaim, and from their hearts abhor, the above mentioned abominable and unchriſtianlike principles, ought not to be put upon a level with any other men who may hold and profeſs thoſe principles.

Your petitioners therefore humbly pray, that this honourable houſe will be pleaſed to grant ſuch relief to your petitioners, as this honourable houſe in its wiſdom ſhall deem to be juſt.

Addreſs of the Inhabitants of Alexandria, in Virginia, to General Waſhington, on leaving his Houſe to accept of the Preſidency of the United States of America, April 16, 1789.

To George Waſhington, eſq.
Preſident of the United States, &c.

Again your country demands your care. Obedient to its wiſhes, unmindful of your own eaſe, we ſee you again relinquiſhing the bliſs of retirement; and this too, at a period of life when nature itſelf ſeems to authorize a preference of repoſe.

Not to extol your glory as a ſoldier—not to pour forth our gratitude for paſt ſervices—not to acknowledge the juſtice of the unexampled honour which has been conferred upon you, by the ſpontaneous and unanimous ſuffrage of three millions of freemen, in your election to the ſupreme magiſtracy—not to admire the patriotiſm that directs your conduct—do your neighbours and friends, now addreſs you.—Themes, leſs ſplendid but more endearing, impreſs our minds. The firſt and beſt of citizens muſt leave us! our aged muſt loſe their ornament! our youth their model! our agriculture its improver! our commerce its friend! our infant academy its patron! our poor their benefactor! and the interior navigation of the Potomack (an event replete with the moſt extenſive utility, already, by your unremitted exertions, brought into partial uſe) its inſtitutor and promoter!

Farewell!—Go; and make a grateful people happy; a people who will be doubly grateful, when they contemplate this recent ſacrifice for their intereſt.

To that Being, who maketh and unmaketh at His will, we commend you; and after the accompliſhment of the arduous buſineſs to which you are called, may He reſtore to us again the beſt of men, and the moſt beloved fellow-citizen.

In behalf of the people of Alexandria,

DENNIS RAMSAY, Mayor.

April 16, 1789.

The Anſwer.

To the mayor, corporation, and citizens of Alexandria.

Gentlemen,

Although I ought not to conceal, yet I cannot deſcribe, the painful emotions which I felt, in being called upon to determine whether I would accept, or refuſe, the preſidency of the United States. The unanimity in the choice; the opinion of my friends, communicated from different parts of Europe as well as of America; the apparent wiſh of thoſe who were not entirely ſatisfied with the conſtitution in its preſent form; and an ardent deſire on my

own

own part, to be instrumental in conciliating the good will of my country toward each other—have induced an acceptance. Those who know me best (and you, my fellow-citizens, are, from your situation, in that number) know better than any other, my love of retirement is so great, that no earthly consideration, short of a conviction of duty, could have prevailed upon me to depart from my resolution, never more to take any share in transactions of a public nature. For at my age, and in my circumstances, what possible advantages could I propose to myself, from embarking again on the tempestuous and uncertain ocean of public life? I do not feel myself under the necessity of making public declarations, in order to convince you, gentlemen, of my attachment to yourselves, and regard for your interests. The whole tenour of my life has been open to your inspection; and my past actions, rather than my present declarations, must be the pledge for my future conduct.

In the mean time, I thank you most sincerely for the expressions of kindness, contained in your valedictory address. It is true, just after having bidden adieu to my domestic connections, this tender proof of your friendship is but too well calculated still farther to awaken my sensibility, and increase my regret, at parting from the enjoyments of private life. All that now remains for me, is to commit myself and you to the protection of that beneficent Being, who, on a former occasion, hath happily brought us together, after a long and distressing separation.—Perhaps the same gracious Providence will again indulge us with the same heartfelt felicity. But words, my fellow-citizens, fail me. Unutterable sensations must then be left to more expressive silence; while from an aching heart, I bid you all, my affectionate friends, and kind neighbours, farewell!

G. WASHINGTON

Speech of George Washington, Esq. President of the United States of America, to both Houses of Congress, April 30, 1789.

Fellow-citizens of the Senate, and of the house of representatives,

Among the vicissitudes incident to life, no event could have filled me with greater anxieties than that of which the notification was transmitted by your order, and received on the 14th day of the present month: on the one hand, I was summoned by my country, whose voice I can never hear but with veneration and love, from a retreat which I had chosen with the fondest predilection, and, in my flattering hopes, with an immutable decision, as the asylum of my declining years; a retreat, which was rendered every day more necessary as well as more dear to me, by the addition of habit to inclination, and of frequent interruptions in my health to the gradual waste committed on it by time. On the other hand, the magnitude and difficulty of the trust to which the voice of my country called me, being sufficient to awaken in the wisest and most experienced of her citizens a distrustful scrutiny into his qualifications, could not but overwhelm with despondence one who, inheriting inferior endowments from nature, and unpractised in the duties of civil administration, ought to be peculiarly conscious of his own deficiencies. In this conflict of emotions, all I dare aver, is, that it hath been my faithful study to collect my duty from

om a juſt appreciation of every cumſtance by which it might be fected. All I dare hope is, that in executing this taſk, I have en too much ſwayed by a grate- l remembrance of former in- nces, or by an affectionate ſenſi- lity to this tranſcendent proof of e confidence of my fellow-citizens; d have thence too little conſulted y incapacity as well as diſinclina- on for the weighty and untried res before me; my error will be lliated by the motives which miſ- d me, and its conſequences be dged by my country, with ſome are of the partiality in which they iginated.

Such being the impreſſions under hich I have, in obedience to the ublic ſummons, repaired to the reſent ſtation, it would be pecu- arly improper to omit in this firſt fficial act my fervent ſupplications that Almighty Being who rules ver the univerſe, who preſides in ne councils of nations, and whoſe rovidential aids can ſupply every uman defect, that his benediction ay conſecrate to the liberties and appineſs of the people of the Uni- ed States, a government inſtituted y themſelves for theſe eſſential urpoſes, and may enable every nſtrument employed in its admi- iſtration, to execute with ſucceſs he functions allotted to his charge. n tendering this homage to the Great Author of every public and private ood, I aſſure myſelf that it expreſ- es your ſentiments not leſs than my wn; nor thoſe of my fellow-citi- ens at large, leſs than either. No people can be bound to acknowledge nd adore the Inviſible Hand which onducts the affairs of men more than he people of the United States. Eve- y ſtep, by which they have advanced o the character of an independent ation, ſeems to have been diſtin- guiſhed by ſome token of provident- tial agency. And in the important revolution juſt accompliſhed in the ſyſtem of their united government, the tranquil deliberations and vo- luntary conſent of ſo many diſtinct communities, from which the event has reſulted, cannot be compared with the means by which moſt go- vernments have been eſtabliſhed, without ſome return of pious grati- tude along with an humble antici- pation of the future bleſſings which the paſt ſeem to preſage. Theſe reflections, ariſing out of the pre- ſent criſis, have forced themſelves too ſtrongly on my mind to be ſup- preſſed. You will join with me, I truſt, in thinking, that there are none under the influence of which the proceedings of a new and free government can more auſpiciouſly commence.

By the article eſtabliſhing the ex- ecutive department, it is made the duty of the preſident to recommend to your conſideration, ſuch mea- ſures as he ſhall judge neceſſary and expedient. The circumſtances un- der which I now meet you, will ac- quit me from entering into that ſub- ject farther than to refer to the great conſtitutional charter under which you are aſſembled; and which, in defining your powers, de- ſignates the objects to which your at- tention is to be given. It will be more conſiſtent with thoſe circumſtances, and far more congenial with the feelings which actuate me, to ſub- ſtitute in place of a recommendation of particular meaſures, the tribute that is due to the talents, the recti- tude, and the patriotiſm which adorn the characters ſelected to de- viſe and adopt them.

In theſe honourable qualifica- tions, I behold the ſureſt pledges, that as on one ſide, no local preju- dices or attachments, no ſeparate

views,

views, nor party animosities, will misdirect the comprehensive and equal eye which ought to watch over this great assemblage of communities and interests; so, on another, that the foundations of our national policy will be laid in the pure and immutable principles of private morality; and the pre-eminence of free government be exemplified by all the attributes which can win the affections of its citizens, and command the respect of the world.

I dwell on this prospect with every satisfaction which an ardent love for my country can inspire; since there is no truth more thoroughly established, than that there exists in the economy and course of nature, an indissoluble union between virtue and happiness; between duty and advantage; between the genuine maxims of an honest and magnanimous policy, and the solid rewards of public prosperity and felicity. Since we ought to be no less persuaded that the propitious smiles of Heaven can never be expected on a nation, that disregards the eternal rules of order and right, which Heaven itself has ordained; and since the preservation of the sacred fire of liberty, and the destiny of the republican model of government, are justly considered as deeply, perhaps as finally, staked on the experiment entrusted to the hands of the American people.

Beside the ordinary objects submitted to your care, it will remain with your judgment to decide how far an exercise of the occasional power, delegated by the fifth article of the constitution, is rendered expedient at the present juncture, by the nature of objections which have been urged against the system, or by the degree of inquietude which has given birth to them. Instead of undertaking particu recommendations on this subject, which I could be guided by lights derived from official oppor nities, I shall again give way my entire confidence in your c cernment and pursuit of the pub good: for I assure myself, th while you carefully avoid every teration which might endanger t benefits of an united and effecti government, or which ought await the future lessons of exp rience, a reverence for the chara teristic rights of freemen, and a r gard for the public harmony, w sufficiently influence your deliber rions on the question, how far th former can be more impregnab fortified, or the latter be safely an advantageously promoted.

To the preceding observations have one to add, which will be mo properly addressed to the house o representatives. It concerns myself and will therefore be as brief a possible. When I was first honour ed with a call into the service of m country, then on the eve of an ar duous struggle for its liberties, th light in which I contemplated my duty required that I should re nounce every pecuniary compensa tion. From this resolution I have in no instance departed. And be ing still under the impressions which produced it, I must decline, as in applicable to myself, any share in the personal emoluments which may be indispensably included in a permanent provision for the executive department; and must accordingly pray that the pecuniary estimates for the station in which I am placed, may, during my continuation in it, be limited to such actual expenditures as the public good may be thought to require.

Having thus imparted to you my sentiments, as they have been awakened

wakened by the occaſion which brings us together, I ſhall take my preſent leave; but not without reſorting once more to the Benign Parent of the human race, in humble ſupplication that, ſince he has been pleaſed to favour the American people with opportunities for deliberating with perfect tranquillity, and diſpoſitions for deciding with unparalleled unanimity, on a form of government for the ſecurity of their union, and the advancement of their happineſs; ſo his divine bleſſing may be equally conſpicuous in the enlarged views, the temperate conſultations, and the wiſe meaſures, on which the ſucceſs of this government muſt depend.

G. WASHINGTON.

Meſſage from the Preſident of the United States to the Houſe of Repreſentatives, Aug. 7, 1789.

Gentlemen of the houſe of repreſentatives.

The buſineſs which has hitherto been under the conſideration of congreſs has been of ſo much importance, that I was unwilling to draw their attention from it to any other ſubject. But the diſputes which exiſt between ſome of the United States and ſeveral powerful tribes of Indians within the limits of the union, and the hoſtilities which have in ſeveral inſtances been committed on the frontiers, ſeem to require the immediate interpoſition of the general government.

I have therefore directed the ſeveral ſtatements and papers, which have been ſubmitted to me on this ſubject by general Knox, to be laid before you for your information.

While the meaſures of government ought to be calculated to protect its citizens from all injury and violence, a due regard ſhould be extended to thoſe Indian tribes, whoſe happineſs, in the courſe of events, ſo materially depends on the national juſtice and humanity of the United States.

If it ſhould be the judgment of congreſs, that it would be moſt expedient to terminate all differences in the ſouthern diſtrict, and to lay the foundation for future confidence, by an amicable treaty with the Indian tribes in that quarter, I think proper to ſuggeſt the conſideration of the expediency of inſtituting a temporary commiſſion for that purpoſe, to conſiſt of three perſons, whoſe authority ſhould expire with the occaſion.

How far ſuch a meaſure, unaſſiſted by poſts, would be competent to the eſtabliſhment and preſervation of peace and tranquillity on the frontiers, is alſo a matter which merits your ſerious conſideration.

Along with this object I am induced to ſuggeſt another, with the national importance and neceſſity of which I am deeply impreſſed; I mean ſome uniform and effective ſyſtem for the militia of the United States. It is unneceſſary to offer arguments in recommendation of a meaſure, in which the honour, ſafety, and well-being of our country ſo evidently and ſo eſſentially depend.

But it may not be amiſs to obſerve, that I am particularly anxious it ſhould receive as early attention as circumſtances will admit; becauſe it is now in our power to avail ourſelves of the military knowledge diſſeminated throughout the ſeveral ſtates by means of the many well-inſtructed officers and ſoldiers of the late army, a reſource which is daily diminiſhing by death and other cauſes.

To ſuffer this peculiar advantage

to pass away unimproved, would be to neglect an opportunity which will never again occur, unless unfortunately we should again be involved in a long and arduous war.

G. WASHINGTON.

Address of the Magistrates and Gentlemen of the County of Hants to the Right Rev. Dr. Charles Inglis, Bishop of Nova Scotia. *See Public Occurrences, Page* (7).

Right Reverend Sir,

The magistrates and gentlemen who have the honour to attend you this day, in behalf of themselves and the inhabitants of Hants, beg leave to express their happiness on the occasion, when the establishment of a public seminary for learning, under your guidance and government, affords them the comfort and hope, that their children as well as the youth of this province in general will have the inestimable advantage of such education as forms the man of learning, with the sentiments that distinguish the gentleman, and the morality and piety of the true Christian.

Happy as the occasion is, it is rendered infinitely more so to us, as well as to every parent, and every person in the district we represent, by the particular satisfaction arising from the influence your presence and encouragement has had with all classes of people; and, we trust, will yield every blessing to be expected from piety, morality, and learning, while the charge allotted to you in this province is supported with such eminent abilities and zeal for the public good.

We humbly offer our grateful thanks to our benign sovereign, for the gracious and distinguished mark of his regard for this province, the appointment of a divine, possessed of every virtue and qualification to inspire universal reverence, affection, and love of religion, as bisho of this province, to superinten this establishment; and to exten the light of the Gospel among h faithful subjects: and to Heave we offer our fervent prayer, tha you may live happy to complet the work you have begun, an long to witness the comfort an happiness of all who benefit b those instances of royal favour, til the Saviour, whose Gospel yo teach, shall reward your merit with everlasting bliss.

The Answer.

Gentlemen,

I feel myself exceedingly obliged by this affectionate and polite address, for which be pleased to accept of my sincerest thanks.

Permit me at the same time to congratulate you on an event so interesting, as the founding and opening a public seminary of learning at Windsor, which promises many advantages to the province.

This institution, and its concomitant benefits, originated from our most gracious and beloved sovereign, who, among other instances of his royal attention to the welfare of his faithful subjects, strongly recommended the measure; and the legislature of this province, with a promptness and zeal which reflect honour on all its members, instantly adopted, and took the proper steps to carry into effect the royal instruction. Happy in promoting the beneficent views of his majesty, and in co-operating with my worthy fellow-subjects in so useful a design, I endeavoured, with all good faith and sincerity, to execute the trust reposed in me; and that the business

is

happily brought to its preſent
ge, is greatly owing to the ready
ncurrence and aid which I received
m his excellency the lieutenant-
vernor, and the other gentlemen,
o, with me, were appointed by
late act of the province to un-
take the general government of
academy. The approbation
ich you are pleaſed to beſtow on
conduct is very flattering, and
l ſerve to ſtimulate my future ex-
ions in the ſame good cauſe.

To you, gentlemen, it would be
edleſs to enlarge on the advanta-
of literature and a virtuous edu-
ion, as you appear to be totally
ſible of them. I ſhall only ob-
ve, that from ſcience the enlight-
ed philoſopher derives his ſuperi-
ty over the untutored ſavage,
d that to the diſcipline and in-
uctions received in early youth,
e devout Chriſtian is indebted,
xt to God, for thoſe enlarged and
eral ſentiments, that integrity of
art, and glowing ardour for the
od of others; which place him ſo
gh above the ignorant, vicious,
d ſelfiſh part of mankind.

As this academy is fixed in your
inity, I earneſtly recommend it
your patronage and aſſiſtance in
y difficulties that may occaſionally
ſe. In particular, I requeſt the
orthy magiſtrates rigorouſly to en-
ce the laws againſt drunkenneſs,
ofane ſwearing, profanation of
e Lord's-day, and other vices,
reeable to his majeſty's late pro-
mation, that the ſtudents may
t be injured by bad examples.

It is unneceſſary to aſſure you,
at I feel the utmoſt anxiety for
e ſucceſs of this academy. May
e Almighty bleſs and proſper it!
ay it flouriſh, and become, as it
intended, a public bleſſing; and
ay uſeful learning, pure religion,
rtue, order, and loyalty flow from
hence, as from a common ſource,
and extenſively diffuſe their ſalutary
effects through every part of the
province.

The King of France's Circular Letter for the Convocation of the States General at Verſailles.

Our beloved and loyal,

We ſtand in need of the concourſe of our faithful ſubjects to enable us to ſurmount all the difficulties we are involved in, reſpecting the condition of our finances; and to eſtabliſh according to our wiſhes a ſteady, conſtant, and invariable order in every part of government, that intereſts the happineſs of our people, and the proſperity of our kingdom. Theſe great motives have determined us to convene the aſſembly of the ſtates in all the provinces under our obedience, in order that they may not only adviſe and aſſiſt us in all thoſe objects that ſhall be laid before them, but lay open likewiſe the wiſhes and grievances of our ſubjects; ſo that, by a mutual confidence, and a reciprocal love between the ſovereign and the nation, an efficacious remedy may be applied as ſoon as poſſible to the diſorders of the ſtate, and abuſes of every kind be reformed and prevented, by good and ſolid means proper to inſure a permanency of the public happineſs, and to reſtore particularly that calm and tranquillity we have ſo long been deprived of. We proclaim, therefore, that it is our intention to begin the meeting of the free and general ſtates of our kingdom on Monday the 27th of April next, in our town of Verſailles, where we mean and deſire that ſome of the moſt reſpectable perſons of each province, bailiwick, and ſeneſchalſhip ſhall attend. We order and ex-

expreſsly enjoin you, therefore, ſoon after the receipt of the preſent letter, to convene and aſſemble in the town of ——, in the ſpeedieſt manner you can, the moſt proper of the three claſſes (trois etats) of the bailiwick or ſeneſchalſhip, of—, that they may confer and communicate together on ſubjects of complaints, grievances, and remonſtrances, and the means and advice they may have to propoſe to the general aſſembly of the ſaid ſtates; and after having done thus much, they are to chuſe and name ſuch and ſuch perſons, &c. and ſo many and no more of every claſs—all of them worthy of this diſtinguiſhed mark of truſt, on account of their integrity, and the ſuperior abilities they are endowed with. The above convocations and elections ſhall be made throughout the kingdom in the form preſcribed by the regulation annexed to the preſent letter. The deputies or repreſentatives of the provinces, bailiwicks, and ſeneſchalſhips ſhall be furniſhed with proper inſtructions, and ſufficient power to propoſe, remonſtrate, adviſe, and conſent to every thing that may concern the preſent or future wants of the ſtate, the reform of abuſes, the eſtabliſhment of ſteady and permanent order in every branch of the adminiſtration, the general proſperity of our kingdom, and the welfare of all and each of our ſubjects; aſſuring them, that on our ſide they ſhall find our beſt good will and affection for maintaining and executing whatever ſhall have been concerted between us and the ſaid ſtates, whether reſpecting the impoſts they ſhall agree upon, or for the eſtabliſhment of a conſtant rule in all parts of the adminiſtration, or on the public order; promiſing moreover to aſk and to liſten favourably to, their advice on whatever may intereſt the good of t nation to redreſs their grievanc and to attend to the propoſals th ſhall be advanced; ſo that o kingdom, and all our ſubjects particular may feel the ſalutary e fects of ſo noble and ſo grand an a ſembly for ever.

Given at Verſailles, the 24th Jan. 1789.

Signed, LEWIS.

LAW. DE VILLEDEUI

The King of France's Speech on th Opening of the States General, Ma 9, 1789.

Gentlemen,

The day is at length arrive which my heart has ſo long pante to ſee, and I find myſelf ſurround ed by the repreſentatives of a natio it is my glory to command.

A long interval has elapſed ſinc the laſt convocation of the ſtates ge neral; but although theſe aſſemblie have not for ſome time been held, I have not been ſwayed by the ſteps of my late predeceſſors, to re-eſtabliſh a cuſtom from which the nation may earneſtly hope to acquire new vigour, and which may be the means of opening to it an additional ſource of happineſs.

The public debt was already immenſe at my coming to the throne, and has increaſed under my reign; an expenſive but honourable war has been the cauſe, and the augmentation of taxes the conſequences of it; but an unequal levy has cauſed them to be more ſeverely felt.

A very general diſcontent, a too great deſire for innovation, have taken hold of the people's minds, and will end in miſleading their judgment, if they do not haſten to fix them by wiſe and moderate councils.

It

It is with this confidence, gentlemen, that I now assemble you, and rejoice to see that it has been justified by those dispositions which the two first orders of the state have shewn, to renounce their own pecuniary privileges. The hope which I have cherished, to see all the orders unite and concur with me in wishes for the public good, will, I am certain, not be deceived.

I have already ordered very considerable retrenchments of expence; you will moreover furnish me with your sentiments on the subject, which I shall receive most gladly; but in spite of the resources which the strictest œconomy can suggest, I fear, gentlemen, that I shall not be able to relieve my subjects so soon as I could wish. I shall order to be laid before you the exact state of the finances; and when you have examined them, I am assured you will propose to me the most effectual means to establish them on a permanent footing, and strengthen the public credit. This great and salutary work will claim your most earnest attention; it is that which will secure the internal tranquillity of the kingdom, and maintain its consequence among foreign powers.

The public spirit is in a ferment, but an assembly of the representatives of the nation will certainly hearken to no other counsels but those founded on wisdom and prudence. You, yourselves, gentlemen, have been able to judge on many recent occasions, that the people have been misguided; but the spirit which will rule over your deliberations will answer for the true sentiments of a generous nation, whose distinguished character has ever been the love of their king. I shall banish from me every other sentiment.

I know the authority and power of a just king, surrounded by a faithful people, at all times attached to the principles of monarchy; these have caused the glory and splendour of France; I ought and I ever shall be the support of them.

But whatever may be expected from the most tender solicitude for the public good, whatever can be asked from a sovereign, the sincerest friend of his people, you may, you ought to hope from me.

May a happy union reign in this assembly! And may this epocha become ever memorable for the happiness and prosperity of the country. It is the wish of my heart; it is the most ardent desire of my prayers; it is, in short, the price which I expect for the sincerity of my intentions, and my love for my people.

The keeper of the seals will explain my intentions more fully, and I have ordered the director-general of the finances to lay before you the state of the kingdom.

Letter from the King of France to the President of the National Assembly, May 28, 1789.

Being informed, that the difficulties which have been made relative to ascertaining the powers vested in the members of the states general still subsist, notwithstanding the care taken by the commissioners chosen by the three estates to find out the means of settling this point; I cannot see without pain, and indeed much uneasiness, the national assembly, which I have called together to be concerned with me in the new regulation of the kingdom, sunk into inaction, which, if continued, would cause all the hopes which I have formed for the happiness of my people, and the benefit of the state, to prove abortive. Un-

der theſe circumſtances, I deſire that the conciliatory commiſſioners, already choſen by the three orders, reſume their conferences to morrow at ſix in the evening, in the preſence of my keeper of the ſeals and commiſſioners, whom I ſhall appoint, in order that I may be more particularly informed of the propoſals for agreement which ſhall be made, and directly contribute to ſo deſirable and preſſing a ſtate of harmony. I charge the perſon who ſhall exerciſe the office of preſident to make known theſe my intentions to the aſſembly.

LOUIS.

Verſailles, May 28.

Addreſs of M. Bailly, one of the Deputies of the Tiers Etât of France, to his Majeſty, June 6, 1789.

Sire,

The deputies of your faithful commons would long ſince have ſolemnly preſented to your majeſty the reſpectful teſtimony of their gratitude for the convocation of the ſtates general, had their powers been verified, which would have been the caſe but for the obſtacles thrown in the way by the nobles. They wait with the moſt anxious impatience for the moment of that verification, to enable them to offer you a more ſtriking homage and token of their love for your ſacred perſon, for your auguſt family, and their devotion to the intereſts of the monarch, which are always inſeparable from thoſe of the nation.

The ſolicitude your majeſty experiences at the inaction of the ſtates general, affords a freſh proof of the deſire which animates your breaſt to produce the happineſs of France.

Afflicted at this fatal inaction, the deputies of the commons hav left no means untried to determin thoſe of the clergy and the nobl to unite with them for the purpo of conſtituting the national aſſem bly; but the nobles having agai manifeſted their reſolution of mai taining the verification of their pow ers ſeparately tranſacted, the conc liatory conferences opened on th important queſtion were neceſſaril at an end.

Your majeſty, deſiring that the ſhould be reſumed, in preſence the keeper of the ſeals, and com miſſioners you have named, the d puties of the commons, certain tha under a prince, who wiſhes to be th reſtorer of France, the liberty of th national aſſembly can be in no dan ger, have chearfully concurred i your deſire as ſignified to them. The are thoroughly convinced, that i the exact journal of theſe confe rences laid before your majeſty, yo will diſcover nothing in the motiv by which we are directed, but th principles of juſtice and of reaſo Sire, your faithful commons wi never forget what they owe to the king; never will they loſe ſight the natural alliance between th throne and the people, againſt ar ſtocracies, under whatever form whoſe power can be eſtabliſhed on ly on the ruins of the regal autho rity, and the public happineſs. Th French people, whoſe glory it ha been at all times to love their kin will always be ready to ſpill the blood and laviſh their property i ſupport of the genuine principles the monarchy. From the very fir moment that the inſtructions re ceived by their deputies will pe mit them to expreſs a national wiſh you will judge, Sire, whether th repreſentatives of your commons d not prove themſelves the moſt anx ous of your ſubjects to maintai

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the rights, the honours, the dignities of the throne, to conſolidate the public engagements, to reſtore the credit of the nation; you will acknowledge likewiſe, that they are not leſs juſt towards their fellow-citizens, of every claſs, than devoted to your majeſty

Your faithful commons are moſt deeply affected at the circumſtance under which your majeſty has the goodneſs to receive their deputation; and they take the liberty to addreſs to your majeſty the univerſal expreſſion of their regret, and of their reſpectful ſenſibility.

His Majeſty's Anſwer.

Gentlemen,

I receive with ſatisfaction the teſtimonials of devotion and attachment to the monarchy, of the repreſentatives of the third eſtate of my kingdom. All the orders of the ſtate have an equal claim to my favour, and you may rely on my kindneſs and protection. Above all I recommend to you ſpeedily to ſecond, and that with a ſpirit of prudence and of peace, the accompliſhment of the benefits I am impatient to confer on my people, and which they confidently expect from my ſentiments in their favour.

Speech of the King of France to the States General, June 23.

Gentlemen,

At the time I took the reſolution of aſſembling you; when I had ſurmounted all the difficulties which had threatened a convocation of my eſtates; when I had, to uſe the expreſſion, even preconceived the deſires of the nation, in manifeſting beforehand my wiſhes for its welfare; I thought to have done every thing which depended on myſelf for the good of my people.

It ſeemed to me, that you had only to finiſh the work I had begun; and the nation expected impatiently the moment, when, in conjunction with the beneficent views of its ſovereign, and the enlightened zeal of its repreſentatives, it was about to enjoy that proſperous and happy ſtate which ſuch an union ought to afford.

The ſtates general have now been opened more than two months, and have not yet even agreed on the preliminaries of its operations. Inſtead of that ſource of harmony which ſhould ſpring from a love of the country, a moſt fatal diviſion ſpreads an alarm over every mind. I am willing to believe, and I ſhall be happy to find, that the diſpoſition of Frenchmen is not changed: but, to avoid reproaching either of you, I ſhall conſider, that the renewal of the ſtates general after ſo long a period, the turbulence which preceded it, the object of this aſſembly, ſo different from that of your anceſtors, and many other objects, have led you to an oppoſition, and to prefer pretenſions to which you are not entitled.

I owe it to the welfare of my kingdom, I owe it to myſelf, to diſſipate theſe fatal diviſions. It is with this reſolution, Gentlemen, that I convene you once more around me. I do it as the common father of all my people—I do it as the defender of my kingdom's laws, that I may recal to your memory the true ſpirit of your conſtitution, and reſiſt thoſe attempts which have been aimed againſt it.

But, Gentlemen, after having clearly eſtabliſhed the reſpective rights of the different orders, I expect from the zeal of the two principal claſſes—I expect from their attachment to my perſon—I expect from the knowledge they have of

the preſſing urgencies of the ſtate, that in thoſe matters which concern the general good, they ſhould be the firſt to propoſe a re-union of conſultation and opinion, which I conſider as neceſſary in the preſent criſis, and which ought to take place for the general good of the kingdom.

Addreſs, preſented to the King by a Deputation of the National Aſſembly of France, on the Approach of numerous Bodies of Troops to the Capital, July 10.

Sire,

You have invited the national aſſembly to evince its confidence in you: by this you have anticipated its moſt ardent wiſhes.

We come to repoſe the moſt ſerious apprehenſions in the boſom of your majeſty. If we were the object of thoſe apprehenſions, if we had the weakneſs to be alarmed for ourſelves, you would have the goodneſs and condeſcenſion to allay our fears; and, even in blaming us for having doubted your intentions, you would treat our anxiety with tenderneſs; you would remove the cauſe of it; you would leave not the leaſt uncertainty with reſpect to the ſituation of the national aſſembly.

But, ſire, we do not implore your protection; that would be to wound your juſtice. We have conceived apprehenſions; apprehenſions which, we preſume to ſay, are excited by the pureſt patriotiſm; by a regard to the intereſt of our conſtituents, to the tranquillity of the public, and to the happineſs of a beloved monarch, who, having paved the way to the felicity of the nation, ought certainly himſelf to walk unobſtructed in it.

In the dictates of your heart, ſire conſiſts the true ſecurity of French men. When troops are advancin from every quarter; when camp are formed around us; when th metropolis is inveſted; we enquir with aſtoniſhment, does the kin diſtruſt the fidelity of his people If he could have doubted it, woul he not have poured his paternal an xieties into our boſoms? What ca theſe menacing preparations mean Where are the enemies of the ſta and of the king, whom it is nece ſary to ſubdue? Where are the r bels, where the leaguers, to be r duced?—With one voice the cap tal, and the whole kingdom, an ſwer, We love our king; and w adore the ſupreme Being, for havin preſented us, in his goodneſs, wi ſuch a ſovereign.

Sire, nothing but the pretext the public good can render yo majeſty's conſcience ſubſervient deception.

If the perſons who have giv theſe counſels to your majeſty, h ſufficient confidence in their prin ples to lay them before us, that m ment would be productive of the n bleſt triumph of truth.

The ſtate has nothing to dre but the wicked principles, whi dare to beſiege even the throne ſelf, and which reſpect not the co ſcience of the moſt upright, the m virtuous of princes. And from wh circumſtance of your reign, ſire, c they infer, that you have reaſon queſtion the affection and attac ment of your ſubjects? Are y laviſh of their blood? Are you cr el and implacable? Have you vi lated juſtice? Do the people impu their calamities to you? Is yo name ever mentioned in their co plaints? Can theſe evil counſello aſſert, that the people are impatie of your yoke; that they are tired

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he ſceptre of the Bourbons? No, ire, no: calumny, at leaſt, is not ıbſurd: ſhe endeavours to give to ıer aſperſions ſome appearance of ɔrobability.

Your majeſty has lately ſeen your nfluence over the people: ſubordi·ıation has been re-eſtabliſhed in ɣour diſtracted capital; the priſon·ers, liberated by the multitude, ıave reſumed their fetters, of their ɔwn accord; and a ſingle word from ɣour mouth has reſtored that public ɔrder, which might have coſt tor·ents of blood, had force been em·ɔloyed. But that word was the ɣord of peace: it was the expreſſion ɔf your heart, and your ſubjects ɡlory in never reſiſting it. What a ıoble empire is this! It is that of Lewis IX. of Lewis XII. of Hen·ɣ IV. It is the only empire that ɔan be worthy of you.

We ſhould deceive you, ſire, if, ɔompelled by the exigency of af·ɑirs, we did not add, that this is ɦe only empire, which it is now ɔoſſible to exerciſe in France.— France will never ſuffer the beſt of ɨings to be deceived, nor to be di·ɣerted, by ſiniſter views, from the ıoble plan which he himſelf has ɔormed. You have convoked us, in ɔrder to ſettle, in concert with you, ɦe conſtitution, and thus to effect ɦe regeneration of the kingdom. The national aſſembly appears be·ɔre you, with the moſt ſolemn de·ɔlaration, that your wiſhes ſhall be accompliſhed; that your promiſes ſhall not be ineffectual; that neither ſnares, nor difficulties, nor terrors, ſhall retard its progreſs, nor inti·midate its courage.

Where then is the danger of the troops? our enemies will affect to ſay: what mean theſe complaints, ſince they are inacceſſible to diſcou·ragement?

The danger, ſire, is preſſing; it is univerſal, it is beyond all the cal·culations of human prudence.

The danger is great with reſpect to the people in the country. Once alarmed for our liberty, and it is impoſſible to ſay what can reſtrain them. Diſtance magniſies and ex·aggerates every thing, doubles the anxiety of all, and tends ſtill more to exaſperate and inflame.

The danger is great with reſpect to the capital. How will the peo·ple, ſunk in wretchedneſs, and la·bouring under the moſt cruel ſuffer·ings, behold the remnant of their ſubſiſtence diſputed by a multitude of threatening ſoldiers? The pre·ſence of the troops will exaſperate; it will excite inſurrection; it will produce an univerſal fermentation; and the firſt act of violence, exer·ciſed under the pretext of police, may be the commencement of a dreadful ſucceſſion of calamities.

The danger is great with reſpect to the army. French ſoldiers drawn hither to the centre of diſcuſſion, participating in the paſſions as well as in the intereſts of the people, may forget the engagement that made them ſoldiers, in order to re·member that nature had formed them men.

The danger, ſire, threatens the deliberations which are our firſt du·ty, and which will not be crowned with ſucceſs, nor acquire the cer·tainty of duration, but in propor·tion as the people regard them as entirely free. There is moreover, a contagion in the ſallies of paſſion. We are but men: diſtruſt of our·ſelves, the fear of appearing weak, may hurry us beyond the mark. We ſhall be beſieged, moreover, by violent and intemperate counſels; and calm reaſon, and tranquil wiſ·dom, deliver not their oracles in the midſt of tumultuous and factious ſcenes.

The danger, ſire, is more dreadful ſtill; and judge of its extent by the apprehenſions that bring us before you. Great revolutions have had leſs conſpicuous cauſes: more than one enterpriſe, fatal to nations, has been announced in a leſs inauſpicious and leſs formidable manner.

Believe not thoſe who ſpeak lightly of the nation, and who repreſent it to you, according to their views; ſometimes inſolent, rebellious, ſeditious; ſometimes ſubmiſſive, obedient to the yoke, and ready to bend the neck to receive it. Theſe two pictures are equally unfaithful.

Ever ready to obey you, ſire, becauſe you govern in the name of the laws, our fidelity is boundleſs as well as irreproachable.

Ready to reſiſt all the arbitrary mandates of thoſe who abuſe your name, becauſe they are enemies of the laws, our very fidelity commands this reſiſtance, and we ſhall be ever proud to merit the reproaches which our firmneſs may excite.

Sire, we conjure you in the name of our country, of our happineſs, and of your glory, to ſend back your ſoldiers to the poſts whence your counſellors have drawn them. Send back that artillery deſtined to cover your frontiers; ſend back, particularly, thoſe foreign troops, thoſe allies of the nation, whom we pay to defend, not to diſturb our dwellings. Your majeſty has no occaſion for them. Why ſhould a king, adored by twenty-five millions of Frenchmen, crowd about his throne, at a great expenſe, ſome thouſands of foreigners? Sire, in the midſt of your children, be guarded by their love: the deputies of the nation are convoked, to conſecrate with you the eminent prerogatives of royalty on the immutable foundation of the liberty of the people. But when they fulfil their duty, when they obey the dictates of their reaſon, the impulſe of their feelings, would you expoſe them to the ſuſpicion of having acted under the influence of terror only? The only pure authority, that authority alone which can never be ſhaken, is what our hearts univerſally tender to you. It is the juſt return for the bleſſings you beſtow, and the immortal inheritance of thoſe princes, of whom you, ſire, will be the model.

His Majeſty's Anſwer.

No perſon is ignorant of the diſorderly and ſcandalous ſcenes that have been repeatedly exhibited at Paris and Verſailles, under my eyes, and thoſe of the ſtates-general. It is neceſſary that I ſhould have recourſe to the means in my power to reſtore and maintain order in the capital and its environs. One of my principal duties is to watch over the public ſafety. Theſe are the motives which have induced me to order troops to aſſemble in the vicinity of Paris. You may aſſure the aſſembly of the ſtates-general, that they are deſtined only to repreſs, or rather to prevent, new diſturbances; to preſerve good order and the exerciſe of the laws; to ſecure and to protect that very liberty which ſhould reign in your deliberations. Every kind of reſtraint ſhould be baniſhed from them, as well as every apprehenſion of tumult and violence. None but ill-intentioned perſons could miſlead my people with reſpect to the real motives of the preventive meaſures I have taken. I have conſtantly endeavoured to do every thing that could tend to their felicity; and I have ever had reaſon to be certain of their affection and their fidelity.

If, however, the neceſſary preſence of the troops ſhould ſtill give umbrage, I ſhall conſent, at the requeſt

equeſt of the aſſembly, to remove
ne ſtates general to Noyon, or to
oiſſons; and then I ſhall repair to
'ompeigne, to preſerve the neceſſa-
y communication between the aſ-
mbly and me.

Anſwer of the King of France to a Second Deputation on the ſame Subject, July 13.

I have already declared my in-
ntions reſpecting the meaſures
hich the diſturbances at Paris have
ompelled me to take. It belongs to
e alone to judge of their neceſſity,
nd I cannot recede from the reſo-
tion I have taken. Some towns
ay guard themſelves; but the ex-
nt of my capital will not admit a
otection of that kind. I doubt
ot the purity of the motives which
ave induced you to offer me your
ſiſtance in this diſtreſſing exigen-
; but your preſence at Paris can
of no ſervice: it is neceſſary here,
order to accelerate the important
fairs which I do not ceaſe to re-
mmend to your immediate conſi-
ration.

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eech of the King of France to the National Aſſembly, July 15.

I have aſſembled you together, in
der to conſult on the moſt import-
t affairs of the ſtate; it is a mat-
that affects me more ſenſibly
an the tumult which afflicts the
pital. The chief of the nation
mes with confidence among its
preſentatives to teſtify his diſtreſs,
d invite them to aſſiſt in finding
e means of reſtoring public order
d tranquillity. I am not igno-
nt that there are men who have
cited the moſt unjuſt prejudices,
d who have dared to aſſert that
en you had reaſon to be apprehen-
ſive for your own perſonal ſafety.
Will it, therefore, be neceſſary to re-
aſſure you on the ſubject of reports ſo
reprehenſible, that they are totally
unfounded, and falſify their known
character? Indeed, I feel my intereſt
to be the intereſt of the nation; I call
upon you to aid me at this criſis,
for the purpoſe of preſerving the
ſafety of the ſtate. I depend on the
national aſſembly; and the zeal of
the repreſentatives of my people,
here convened for the common ſafe-
ty, will be my ſure pledge that I
truſt not in vain. Relying on the
affection and fidelity of my ſubjects,
I have ordered the troops to be re-
moved from Paris and Verſailles;
and I authorize and even requeſt
you to make known this my diſpo-
ſition to the capital.

Speech of M. Bailly, the new Prevôt des Marchands, at Paris, to the King of France, on the Entrance of his Majeſty into the Hotel de Ville, July 17.

I bring your majeſty the keys of
the good city of Paris; they are the
ſame that were preſented to Henry
IV. He had regained his people;
here the people have regained their
king.

Your majeſty comes to rejoice in
the peace that you have re-eſta-
bliſhed in your capital; to rejoice
in the love of your faithful ſubjects.
It is for their happineſs that your
majeſty has re-aſſembled the repre-
ſentatives of the nation, and that
you are engaged with them in lay-
ing the foundations of liberty and
public proſperity. What a memor-
able day is this, in which your
majeſty has come to ſit as a father
in the midſt of his re-united fami-
ly, in which you have been con-
ducted back to your palace by the

whole national assembly, guarded by the representatives of the kingdom, surrounded by an immense concourse of people. You carried in your august countenance the expressions of sensibility and happiness, while around you heard nothing but exclamations of joy, saw nothing but tears of tenderness and love. Sire! neither your people nor your majesty will ever forget this great day: it is the happiest of the monarchy, it is the epoch of an august and eternal alliance between the monarch and the people. This circumstance, peculiar to your reign, immortalizes your majesty. I have seen this happy day; and, as if all good fortune were reserved for me, the first function of the office to which the suffrages of my fellow-citizens have raised me, is to communicate to your majesty the expressions of their respect and of their love.

His majesty being seated on the throne, M. Bailly presented him a blue and red cockade, the cockade of the militia, which his majesty graciously received, and placed in his hat. When calm was re-established, after the joy occasioned by the king's appearance, Mr. Moreau de St. Merry, president of the assembly of the electors of Paris, addressed his majesty; and after observing how little the people merited the calumnies raised against them, said, sire, you have nothing more to do than to remember this great and powerful truth, that the thrones of kings are never more firmly fixed than when they have for a basis the love and fidelity of the people: with these titles they are impregnable.

Letter from the Count de Montmorin, Secretary of State, to the Duke de Liancourt, President of the National Assembly, inclosing a Letter from the Duke of Dorset, Ambassador from Great Britain.

Versailles, 27th of July, 1789

Mr. President,

The ambassador of England ha intreated to have the honour, with out loss of time, to communicate th following letter to you. I hav thought it so much less in my powe to resist his application, as it is cer tain that he apprized me, verbally in the beginning of June last, of plot against the port of Brest. Thos who meditated this scheme desire certain succours for the expedition and to have an asylum in England The ambassador did not give me an indication relative to the authors o this project, and he assured me tha they were absolutely unknown t him. The enquiries that I hav been able to make, after machina tions so uncertain, have been a fruitless as expected to be; and have been obliged to confine myse to engage the count de Luzerne t give the commandant of Brest pre cautions to double his vigilance an activity.

I have the honour to be, &c.

DE MONTMORIN

To the duke of LIANCOURT.

Paris, the 26th of July, 178

Sir,

It has been communicated to m from divers quarters, that endea vours have been made to insinuat that my court had fomented in pa the troubles that have afflicted th capital for some time past; that sh had taken advantage of the prese opportunity to take up arms again France; and that even a fleet wa upon the coast to co-operate wit the discontented party. Total destitute of truth as these rumou are, they appear to me to hav reache

eached the national aſſembly: and he Courier National, which gives an ccount of the ſittings of the 23d and 4th of this month, leaves ſuſpicions vhich give me ſo much more pain, s you know, ſir, how far my court s from deſerving them.

Your excellency will call to mind everal converſations which I had vith you in the beginning of June aſt, concerning the horrid plot that had been propoſed relative to the port of Breſt, the anxiety that I felt o put the king and his miniſters upon their guard, the anſwer of my court which correſponds ſo ſtrongly with my ſentiments, and which revolts with horror from the propoſition that was made.—In fine, the aſſurances of attachment which it repeated to the king and the nation, enabled you to make known to his majeſty how much I participated in the emotion which the treachery muſt give him.

As my court has infinitely at heart to preſerve the good harmony which ſubſiſts between the two nations, and to remove all contrary ſuſpicious, I entreat you, ſir, to ſubmit this letter, without delay, to the preſident of the national aſſembly. You are aware how eſſential it is to me to juſtify my own conduct, and that of my court, and to do my utmoſt to deſtroy the effect of the inſidious inſinuations which have been ſo induſtriouſly propagated.

It is of infinite importance to me that the national aſſembly ſhould know my ſentiments, that they ſhould do juſtice to thoſe of my nation, and the open conduct which ſhe has conſtantly held toward France, ſince I had the honour to be her organ.

I have it ſo much more at heart, that you ſhould not loſe a moment in making this known, as I owe not only to my perſonal character, but to my country, and to the Engliſh that are here, to protect them from all the reflections that may ariſe from the miſrepreſentation.

I have the honour to be, &c.

DORSET.

To the count de MONTMORIN.

Verſailles, the 27th of July.

I have received the letter your excellency has done me the honour of writing to me, as likewiſe that of the ambaſſador of England, which was annexed to it, and immediately communicated both one and th other to the national aſſembly.

The aſſembly order me to have the honour of informing you, that they heard them read with the greateſt ſatisfaction, to thank you for having tranſmitted them, and to requeſt you to be ſo good as to expreſs to his excellency the duke of Dorſet their thanks for the anxiety he expreſſes in quality of ambaſſador, to have his ſentiments, and thoſe of his nation, declared to the national aſſembly.

The aſſembly have reſolved, that this letter ſhall be ſent inſtantly to Paris, and made public throughout the kingdom, by impreſſion.

I have the honour to be, &c.

LIANCOURT.

To the count de MONTMORIN.

Letter from the Count de Montmorin to M. le Chapeliere, Preſident of the National Aſſembly, incloſing a ſecond Letter from the Duke of Dorſet.

Verſailles, 4th Auguſt.

Sir,

The Engliſh ambaſſador intreats me again to make known to the national aſſembly a letter which he has written to me. As this letter is the ſequel of that which I had the

honour

honour to communicate to the aſſembly laſt week by the organ of their preſident, I took the orders of his majeſty, who authoriſed me to follow the ſame courſe with this.

I have the honour to be, &c.

MONTMORIN.

To M. le CHAPELIERE.

Paris, Auguſt 3, 1789.

Sir,

My court, to which I gave an account of the letter that I had the honour to write to your excellency on the 26th of July, and which you had the goodneſs to communicate to the national aſſembly, has, by a diſpatch of the 31ſt ult. which I have received this inſtant, not only approved of my conduct, but ſpecially authoriſed me to expreſs again to you, in the moſt poſitive terms, the ardent deſire of his Britannic majeſty and his miniſters, to cultivate and encourage the friendſhip and harmony which ſubſiſts ſo happily between the two nations.

It is ſo much the more pleaſant to me to announce to you theſe renewed aſſurances of harmony and good underſtanding, as it cannot fail but that the greateſt good muſt reſult from a permanent friendſhip between the two nations. And that is to be deſired ſtill the more, as nothing can contribute ſo much to the tranquillity of Europe, as the co-operation of theſe two powers.

I ſhall be obliged to you to communicate to the preſident of the national aſſembly, this confirmation of the ſentiments of the king and his miniſters.

I have the honour to be, &c.

DORSET.

To the count de MONTMORIN.

Addreſs of the National Aſſembly of France to the King, Aug. 11.

Sire,

The national aſſembly bring to your majeſty an offering truly worthy of your heart. It is a monument raiſed by the patriotiſm and generoſity of all your people. The privileges, the particular rights, the diſtinctions injurious to the public good, have diſappeared. Provinces, cities, eccleſiaſtics, nobles, commons, all have, in noble emulation, made the moſt noble ſacrifices. All have abandoned their ancient uſages, even with more joy than vanity itſelf ever ardently claimed them. You ſee none now before you, ſire, but Frenchmen obedient to the ſame laws, governed by the ſame principles, penetrated by the ſame ſentiments, and all equally ready to give up life for the intereſts of the nation, and of their king. Shall not this ſpirit, ſo noble and pure, be yet more animated by the expreſſion of your confidence, by the affecting promiſe of that conſtant and amicable harmony, which till now but few of our kings have aſcertained to their ſubjects, but which your majeſty feels that Frenchmen ſo truly deſerve.

Your choice, ſire, offers to the nation miniſters that they themſelves preſented to you. It is from among the depoſitories of the public intereſts that you have choſen the depoſitories of your authority. You are deſirous that the national aſſembly ſhould unite itſelf with your majeſty for the re-eſtabliſhment of public order and general tranquillity. You ſacrifice to the good of the people your perſonal pleaſures. Accept then, ſire, our reſpectful acknowledgment, the homage of our love, and bear in all ages, the only title that can add to the dignity of royal majeſty, the title that our unanimous acclama-

tions

ons have decreed you." The Re-
torer of French liberty."

His Majesty's Answer.

I accept with gratitude, the title
ou confer. It corresponds with
he motives by which I was directed,
vhen I assembled the representa-
ives of my nation. It is my wish,
n the mean time, to secure, with
our assistance, the public liberty,
y the restoration of order and
ranquillity, so necessary at present.
rom your knowledge and inten-
ions, I look forward with confi-
ence to the result of your delibe-
ations.

Let us go and address our pray-
rs to Almighty God to grant us
is assistance, and to return thanks
or the generous sentiments that
eign in our assembly.

The Speech of Monsieur Rabaud de Saint Etienne, a Protestant Minister, and one of the Deputies in the National Assembly of France, on Thursday, the 27th of August, 1789, on the Question, "Whether any Person ought either to be molested on Account of his Religious Opinions, or debarred from his Adherence to that Form of Worship of which he most approves?"

I rise, as the delegate of a numer-
ous and respectable body of consti-
uents. The bailiwick which I
have the honour to represent con-
tains five hundred thousand inhabi-
tants, amongst whom one hundred
and twenty thousand are Protes-
tants; and, in this multitude I
have the pleasure to be included.
They have instructed me to ask for
an impartial code; and, upon this
occasion, I am confident that I can
unanswerably establish the justice
and the propriety of their request.
The rights which I claim, and in
the support of which I am, now,
ready to contend, belong equally to
you and to ourselves. They are
not merely the rights of the French;
they are the rights of all mankind!
He who attacks the freedom of his
fellow-creatures is only fit to live
in slavery! Freedom is a privilege
at once sacred and inviolable, which
men bring with them into the
world, and which is designed to
influence the whole of their opi-
nions. The freedom of thought is
paramount to all power whatsoever;
and its sanctuary is -- the heart! —
To fetter the conscience is injustice!
to ensnare or to rebel against it, is
an act of sacrilege! but, to torture
it by the attempt to force its feel-
ings from their propriety, is hor-
rible intolerance; it is the most
abandoned violation of all the max-
ims of morality and religion! Error,
far from being guilt, is truth in
the idea of the person by whom it
has been embraced. Where is the man
who can either presume to assert
that his reasoning and consequent
procedures are unexceptionable, or
venture positively to decide against
the supposed mistaken sentiments
and conduct of his neighbour? A
form of worship is a tenet; a tenet
depends upon opinion; and opi-
nion and liberty are inseparable.
To endeavour to compel one person
to receive a tenet different from that
which may have been entertained
by another, is a direct attack against
liberty! it is intolerant; and, of
course, unjust: it is that kind of
persecution which, whilst it insults
a manly and independent style of
thinking, abets and cherishes hy-
pocrisy.

The last edict which professes to
be in favour of those who are not
within the pale of the catholic
church, grants to them only such
indulgences as it was impossible
to refuse. This is, word for
word,

word, the language of the king, who, in his edict, uſes theſe terms: "I ſpeak of the right of legaliſing their marriages and their baptiſms, and of the permiſſion to bury their dead." O humiliating conceſſions! O degraded Frenchmen! and is it in this enlightened country, and during the eighteenth century, that the nation remains divided into two claſſes, one of which has long groaned under preſcriptions ſhocking in the extreme? I will ſpeak out at once, and tell this aſſembly, that the pretended gift of the laſt year was received with ſhame and with concern. We ſcorn to prove guilty of hypocriſy: at leaſt, we will not degrade ourſelves into the objects of your diſdain; but, if it be our hard fate ſtill to experience your jealouſy and your perſecution, we will maintain unſullied the true principle of French honour, one great criterion of which is a contempt for that diſſimulation which would debaſe the intention of the legiſlature. We do not ſolicit favours; we aſk only for juſtice: and, doubtleſs, that impartial liberty which reigns in this aſſembly will never ſuffer juſtice to be diſpenſed by partial diſtributions. The proteſtants are, all, for their country; and, yet, this country has not granted to them any benefits: they have no motive to excite their emulation; nor are they permitted to enjoy the rewards of either their civil or their military virtues. It is not for toleration that I plead: (as to intolerance, that ſavage word, I hope that it is expunged, for ever, from our annals). Toleration ſuggeſts the idea of pity, which degrades the dignity of man; but liberty ought to be the ſame in favour of all the world. I demand liberty for thoſe proſcribed people; for thoſe wretched wanderers, from place to place, over the whole ſu face of the globe; for theſe nume ous victims to humiliation: I mea the perſecuted Jews.

It may, perhaps, be anſwere that the ſtates which ſurround yo have an exception to thoſe who d not profeſs the religion of the m jority. Natives of France! yo were made, not to receive, but afford examples. And, yet, if yo delight in imitation, copy the Am ricans!—They have excepted n perſon whatſoever. The follow of that kind of religion which i culcates the true priciples of liberty is entitled to enjoy all the ſacre privileges which are attached human nature.

But, I retnrn to my principle or, rather, to your own, when declare that all men are born an remain free. Is not this the pre per conſecration of the liberty the human race?. Every excluſiv privilège in matters of religion de troys your principles. Your law only the law which the ſtronge arm maintains: and, could I no for the purpoſes of juſtifying an a of diſobedience, avail myſelf, again your own authority, of thoſe ver principles which have ſo ſtrongl marked the recent regulation your conduct?

A long and bloody epoch ha made us learn experience. Is not, therefore, full time totally t demoliſh thoſe abominable barrie which ſeparate man from man which diſunite the French from th French?

My country is free! let her di cover that ſhe merits this felicity b equally dividing her privileges a mongſt all her children! Until th conſtitution ſhall have eſtabliſhe that equality which I demand, vote entirely in favour of the pro poſition of Monſieur de Caſtellane

tha

t no perſon ſhould be either leſted on account of his religious nions, or debarred from an ad- rence to that form of worſhip of ich he moſt approves!

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e Declaration of Right, which has been agreed to by the National Aſ- ſembly of France, and ſanctioned by the King, and which forms the Baſis of the new Conſtitution of France.

The repreſentatives of the peo- e of France, formed into a national ſembly, conſidering that ignorance, glect, or contempt of human ghts, are the ſole cauſes of public iſfortunes and corruptions of go- rnment, have reſolved to ſet rth in a ſolemn declaration, theſe tural, impreſcriptible, and unali- iable rights: that this declaration eing conſtantly preſent to the inds of the members of the body cial, they may be ever kept atten- ve to their rights and their duties: hat the acts of the legiſlative and xecutive powers of government be- ng capable of being every moment ompared with the end of political ſtitutions, may be more reſpected; nd alſo, that the future claims of he citizens, being directed by ſim- le and inconteſtible principles, may lways tend to the maintenance of he conſtitution, and the general appineſs.

For theſe reaſons the national aſ- embly doth recognize and declare, n the preſence of the ſupreme Being nd with the hope of his bleſſing and avour, the following ſacred rights of men and of citizens.

I. Men were born and always continue free, and equal in reſpect of their rights. Civil diſtinctions, therefore, can be founded only on public utility.

II. The end of all political aſſociations is the preſervation of the natural and impreſcriptible rights of man; and theſe rights are liberty, property, ſecurity, and reſiſtance of oppreſſion.

III. The nation is eſſentially the ſource of all ſovereignty; nor can any individual, or any body of men, be entitled to any authority which is not expreſsly derived from it.

IV. Political liberty conſiſts in the power of doing whatever does not injure another. The exerciſe of the natural rights of every man, has no other limits than thoſe which are neceſſary to ſecure to every other man the free exerciſe of the ſame rights; and theſe limits are determinable only by the law.

V. The law ought to prohibit only actions hurtful to ſociety. What is not prohibited by the law ſhould not be hindered; nor ſhould any one be compelled to that which the law does not require.

VI. The law is an expreſſion of the will of the community. All citizens have a right to concur, either perſonally or by their repreſentatives, in its formation. It ſhould be the ſame to all, whether it protects or puniſhes; and all being equal in its ſight, are equally eligible to all honours, places, and employments, according to their different abilities, without any other diſtinction than that created by their virtues and talents.

VII. No man ſhould be accuſed, arreſted, or held in confinement, except in caſes determined by the law, and according to the forms which it has preſcribed. All who promote, ſolicit, execute, or cauſe to be executed, arbitrary orders, ought to be puniſhed: and every citizen called upon or apprehended by virtue of the law, ought immediately to obey, and renders himſelf culpable by reſiſtance.

VIII. The

VIII. The law ought to impose no other penalties than such as are absolutely and evidently necessary; and no one ought to be punished but in virtue of a law promulgated before the offence, and legally applied.

IX. Every man being presumed innocent till he has been convicted, whenever his detention becomes indispensable, all rigour to him, more than is necessary to secure his person, ought to be provided against by the law.

X. No man ought to be molested on account of his opinions, not even on account of his religious opinions, provided his avowal of them does not disturb the public order established by the law.

XI. The unrestrained communication of thoughts and opinions being one of the most precious rights of man, every citizen may speak, write, and publish freely, provided he is responsible for the abuse of this liberty in cases determined by the law.

XII. A public force being necessary to give security to the rights of men and of citizens, that force is instituted for the benefit of the community, and not for the particular benefit of the persons to whom it is entrusted.

XIII. A common contribution being necessary for the support of the public force, and for defraying the other expences of government, it ought to be divided equally among the members of the community, according to their abilities.

XIV. Every citizen has a right, either by himself or his representative, to a free voice in determining the necessity of public contributions, the appropriation of them, and their amount, mode of assessment, and duration.

XV. Every community has a right to demand of all its agents an account of their conduct.

XVI. Every community in which a separation of powers and a security of rights is not provided for, wants a constitution.

XVII. The right to property being inviolable and sacred, no one ought to be deprived of it, except in cases of evident public necessity legally ascertained, and on condition of a previous just indemnity.

Proceedings of the Revolution Society of London, Nov. 4.

At the anniversary meeting of the Society for commemorating the Revolution in Great Britain, held at the London Tavern, Nov. 4. 1789 Dr Price moved, and it was unanimously resolved, that the following congratulatory address to the National Assembly of France, be transmitted to them, signed by the chairman:

The society for commemorating the Revolution in Great Britain disdaining national partialities, and rejoicing in every triumph of liberty and justice over arbitrary power, offer to the national assembly of France their congratulations on the revolution in that country, and on the prospect it gives to the two first kingdoms in the world, of a common participation in the blessings of civil and religious liberty.

They cannot help adding their ardent wishes of a happy settlement of so important a revolution, and at the same time expressing the particular satisfaction, with which they reflect on the tendency of the glorious example given in France to encourage other nations to assert the unalienable rights of mankind, and thereby to introduce a general reformation in the governments of Europe,

rope, and to make the world free
l happy.

STANHOPE.

In purſuance of the reſolution of
ſociety, this congratulatory ad-
ſs was conveyed to the duke of
chefoucauld at Paris, with a let-
requeſting him to preſent it to
national aſſembly, and at the
ne time intimating, that the ſo-
ty conſidered the national aſſem-
as acting for the world as well
for the great kingdom it repre-
ted, and therefore hoped that
ir addreſs was not an improper
ruſion; or, if it were, that it
uld be excuſed as an effuſion of
l in the cauſe of general liberty
l human happineſs, which no con-
erations of impropriety had been
e to ſuppreſs.

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xtract from a Letter of the Duke de Rochefoucauld to Dr Price.—Dated Paris, December 2d, 1789.

It belonged to ——Dr. Price to
ppoſe a motion tending to pay to
erty the faireſt homage, that of
tional prejudices.—The addreſs
congratulation which earl Stan-
pe has done the duke de Roche-
ucauld the honour to tranſmit to
n, has been received by the na-
nal aſſembly with lively applauſe.
ney have ſeen in that addreſs the
wn of a glorious day, in which
o nations who have always eſteem-
one another notwithſtanding
ir political diviſions, and the di-
ſity of their governments, ſhall
ntract an intimate union, found-
on the ſimilarity of their opi-
ns and their common enthuſiaſm
liberty.—They have directed
ir preſident to write to earl Stan-
pe; but the multiplicity of the
ſineſs of the preſidency not having
permitted the expediting of that
er, the duke de Rochefoucauld
has not delayed to do himſelf the honour of writing to Dr. Price. Happy in having been choſen for ſuch an honourable commiſſion, he has rendered an account of it to the national aſſembly; and, in preſenting to them the addreſs of a ſociety whoſe object is ſo noble and patriotic, he has acquainted them with the claim which it has to their eſteem, and to the eſteem of the whole French nation, &c. &c.

Extract from the Votes of the National Aſſembly of France, of Wedneſday the 25th of Nov. 1789, tranſmitted by the Archbiſhop of Aix, Preſident of the National Aſſembly, to Earl Stanhope, Chairman of the Revolution Society in London.

A member having read a congratulatory addreſs of the Engliſh ſociety called the Revolution Society; the aſſembly, deeply affected with this extraordinary proof of eſteem, expreſſed its ſatisfaction by loud applauſe, and reſolved that the preſident be directed to write a letter to lord Stanhope, chairman of the ſociety, expreſſing the lively and deep ſenſibility with which the national aſſembly of France received the addreſs of the Revolution ſociety in England, which breathes thoſe ſentiments of humanity and univerſal benevolence, that ought to unite together, in all countries of the world, the true friends of liberty and the happineſs of mankind.

(Signed)
THE ARCHBISHOP OF AIX,
Preſident of the national aſſembly.
Sealed with the arms of the national aſſembly of France.
(Counter-ſigned)
The Viſc. de MIRABEAU, Secretary.
SALOMON DE LA SAUGERIE, Secretary.

Letter

Letter from the Archbiſhop of Aix, Preſident of the National Aſſembly, to Earl Stanhope, Chairman of the Revolution Society.

Paris, 5th Decemb. 1789.

It is worthy, my lord, of a celebrated ſociety, and of a happy and free people, to intereſt themſelves in the progreſs of public liberty and happineſs.

The French nation has long been improving in knowledge and arts; and its government was directed by opinions derived from them even before the country governed itſelf by the laws which they dictated.

The nation purſued with ardour uſeful truths, and daily diffuſing light over every branch of the adminiſtration, it appeared to be carried as by an univerſal impulſe, to thoſe changes which now give it ſtrength and ſtability.

A king whom we may call the beſt of men, and the firſt of citizens, encouraged by his virtues the hopes of the nation, and now, by univerſal concurrence, a durable conſtitution is eſtabliſhed, founded on the unalienable rights of men and citizens.

It undoubtedly belongs to our age, in which reaſon and liberty are extending themſelves together, to extinguiſh for ever national hatred and rivalſhip.

We muſt not allow the prejudices which diſgrace nations to produce wars, thoſe errors of governments. But the two moſt enlightened people of Europe ought to ſhew, by their example, that the love of their country is perfectly compatible with every ſentiment of humanity.

The national aſſembly diſcovers in the addreſs of the Revolution ſociety of England, thoſe principles of univerſal benevolence which ought to bind together, in all countries of the world, the true friends to the happineſs and liberty of mankind.

The national aſſembly has given the moſt undeniable teſtimony of its ſtrong and deep ſenſe of this truth, by the ſolemn vote which has directed me to communicate to you.

Accept the aſſurance of the ſentiments with which I have the honour to be,

My Lord,
Your moſt humble,
And moſt obedient ſervant,
THE ARCHBISHOP OF AIX,
Preſident of the national aſſembly.
To Lord Stanhope, Chairman of the Revolution Society.

Note in anſwer to the preceding Letter.

The members of the Revolution ſociety in London requeſt the archbiſhop of Aix's acceptance of their beſt thanks for the letter which he has directed to earl Stanhope the chairman, and for conveying to them the vote of the national aſſembly of France. They could ſcarcely have received a higher ſatisfaction than has been given them by the archbiſhop's letter, and the condeſcending notice with which the national aſſembly has been pleaſed to honour their congratulatory addreſs. They feel particularly the juſtice which this auguſt aſſembly has done them, by imputing their addreſs to the influence of thoſe principles of univerſal benevolence which ought in all countries to bind together the friends of human liberty and happineſs. Their hearts are warm with theſe principles; and they deſire nothing ſo earneſtly as that the time may ſoon come when they ſhall ſo poſſeſs every human heart as to put an end to all jealouſies between nations, exterminate oppreſſion and ſlavery, and cauſe wars, thoſe dreadful

errors of governments, to ceaſe all the earth. They exult in ſ proſpect of ſuch a time, which ms to be opening, and with which ſ proceedings of the national aſ-bly of France promiſe to bleſs nkind.

The Revolution ſociety cannot oid taking this occaſion to add, t among the important benefits the revolution in France, they kon its tendency to afford a ſa-ary inſtruction to kings. They rn with pleaſure that the people France are happy in a king who encouraged them by his virtues recovering their rights, and been this account juſtly crowned with title of the reſtorer of French rty. This elevates him to the heſt pinnacle of glory. The oots of the world muſt now ſee r folly. This example muſt w them that they can never be great or happy, or truly pow-l, as by renouncing deſpotic ver, and being placed (like the gs of France and England) at head of an enlightened people free conſtitutions of govern-nt?

Signed by Earl STANHOPE, in the name of the Society.

Fifteenth Report of the Commiſſion-s appointed to examine, take, and ate, the Public Accounts of the ingdom.

In our laſt Report we examin-nto the charges ſuſtained by public for the management of cuſtom revenue in the year , as far as thoſe charges aroſe the payments made by the n and the ſubject to the officers loyed in the cuſtomhouſe and of London,

89.

"We ſubmitted to the wiſdom of the legiſlature the obſervations which occurred to our judgment in the courſe of that inquiry; and ſuggeſted various regulations, with a view to order and oeconomy, which to us ſeemed fitting and expedient to be adopted.

"Having finiſhed that examination, we proceeded to a ſimilar one reſpecting the out-ports of the cuſtoms; and as there remained other and material ſources of diminution of the produce of this revenue, diſtinct from, and no way comprehended in, that great head of expenditure conſiſting of the payments by the crown to the officers, theſe remaining charges became in like manner the objects of our inveſtigation.

"We experienced great delay in procuring the accounts neceſſary to enable us to aſcertain and ſtate that ſpecific portion of the total expence of management which had, in the year under our conſideration, been applied to the ſupport of the officers concerned in conducting this wide and extenſive department.

"Apprehending that theſe accounts might, from their nature and extent, demand a conſiderable time in forming, we did not omit to make our requiſition for them at an early period, and while engaged in objects not ſoon to be exhauſted; thereby guarding againſt the evil of interruption, in the progreſs of our labours from the want of the returns and materials which were to become the ground-work of our proceedings.—Accordingly, on the 17th day of December, 1784, we iſſued two precepts to the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms; the one, for that account which formed the ſubject matter of our laſt Report—the other, for "An

account of the groſs ſalaries, fees, allowances, and gratuities, received by the officers of the cuſtoms in the out-ports; diſtinguiſhing by what authority they are ſeverally appointed, with the payments for taxes, deputies, clerks and other contingent expences, under their ſeveral heads, and the net produce received by each officer for the year 1784:" An account to which, in the order of this Report, our attention is firſt directed.

"The account for the port of London was not delivered to us until the April following. To our requiſition for the out-port account we had no return before the month of November; and then we received liſts for only four of the ports, and thoſe incomplete. We did not ſuffer this interval of time to elapſe without making frequent and repeated applications to the office of the cuſtoms, to the intent that we might be informed of the cauſes which impeded the return, the means uſed to obtain, and the progreſs and ſtate of the account required. We were made acquainted with theſe particulars, and with other matters neceſſary to explain and elucidate this part of the ſubject, by the examination of William Stiles, eſquire, ſecretary to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, and by that of Mr. John Dalley, deputy ſuperviſor of the receiver general's receipts and payments, who alſo made known to us the method in which the accounts were raiſed, and the materials of which the one for the out-ports is compoſed.

"The board of cuſtoms, on the 18th of December 1784, the day ſubſequent to the date of our precepts, gave by their minute the inſtructions and orders neceſſary to procure from all the officers of the cuſtoms, whether belonging to port of London or to the out-po the accounts that were called for That no errors might be occaſi ed by ignorance or miſapprehenſi on the part of the officers, and t exact and complete returns mi be obtained, the board ordered pies of our precepts to be print and ſpecimens, deſcribing the fo in which the account was to made out, to be ſubjoined.

"Theſe printed inſtruments w delivered to the London offi with an order of the board, da January the 1ſt, 1785; requi them to make the returns into office of the ſecretary on or be the 18th of that month; which junction was ſo far effectual, t the accounts were received by board of cuſtoms, and commi to the officer appointed to rec them into form by the month February. The like inſtrum were tranſmitted to the colle and controller at every out-p with an order of the ſame da and thoſe officers, thus furni with a rule to govern the retu both as to form and matter, v directed to call upon the pa officers, their deputies, and the of the officers under their ſur to prepare the accounts with poſſible ſpeed, and to ſend them to the board of cuſtoms.

"Soon after the tranſmiſſion theſe orders, returns were rece from ſome of the out-ports: the collectors and controllers at veral of them, inſtead of ſen the returns, ſtated to the b many difficulties they met wit obeying and carrying into e their orders.—The principal in diments ſo alleged were the reſidence or abſence of the pa officers, whereby it became

practic

practicable to perfect the account, there being no means of supplying that part of it which had reference to those officers. From the port of Hull the account came up in blank, as far as it regarded the patent officers; and the reason assigned for its being transmitted in such a state, was, that one of them was in London, another in Dorchester, and the deputy to the third in Scotland. At several other ports the collectors and controllers were obliged, from a similar cause to return the accounts in like manner unfinished and defective.—To remove this obstacle, which prevailed at many of the out-ports, the board of customs, some time in May, issued their orders to such of the patent officers themselves, whose places of residence they could discover, to prepare the accounts required, and transmit them directly to the board. They had it not in their power to communicate these orders to the whole class of patent officers, the office not possessing a knowledge of the residence of them all; because, though it is the usual practice, upon the registering of a patent in the secretary's department, to enter the place of abode of the officer appointed by that instrument, yet no notification of any subsequent change in his residence is transmitted to the office.

"These orders of the board produced returns from some of the patent officers, but many of them imperfect. All the returns, whether from the London or the out-port officers, whether coming through the intervention of the collectors and controllers, or made directly by the patentees, were committed to the charge of Mr. John Dalley, in order that he might digest and form them into the accounts required by our precepts.

"The execution of this work, as confined to the port of London, proved to be a service of difficulty and labour. Among returns so numerous, and to a requisition at the same time so extensive and so definite, many were found to be wanting in the fullness and precision not to be dispensed with: but having the advantage of the presence of the London officers, and thereby an opportunity of personal intercourse and explanation, he was enabled, either to obtain new returns or corrections of the original ones; so as that, by devoting many of his official and all his leisure hours to the business, he had nearly completed the account by April. He then received from the office of the secretary, the returns made by the officers of the out-ports, for the same purpose of framing the account.

"If the London returns were replete with error, far more erroneous and defective were those transmitted from the out-ports. Upon inspecting and comparing those returns with books and accounts in the office of the customs, he discovered that few were regular, consistent, or correct. Various and numerous were their defects. Officers were omitted, salaries paid by the crown not inserted, allowances from the crown blended with fees taking from the subject, and, in some instances, no receipt of fees stated. The sums returned by principal officers as paid to their deputies, did not accord with the sums admitted to have been received by them; a disagreement which proved, upon inquiry, frequently to have arisen from this circumstance, that the deputy had not distinguished fees received on his own account from those which he had taken on that of his patentee.

No uniformity prevailed in the ſyſtem of payment, between the patent officers and their deputies; the mode adopted at ſome of the ports being, purſuant to the orders of the treaſury, that of allowing the deputy a ſalary of twenty pounds a year, or the whole of the fees, if they fell ſhort of that ſum; at others no payment by ſalary being in uſe, but an allowance of the whole or a ſhare of the patent fees, the method by which the deputy was paid, and theſe portions different at different ports, according to the particular term of the agreement.—To reconcile the inconſiſtences, to ſupply the defects, and correct the errors, which were thus generally prevalent among the returns, and ſometimes many of them conjoined in the ſame return, he was obliged to maintain a continued correſpondence with the collectors and controllers at the various out-ports; and, in order, that every means of acceleration might be had recourſe to, wherever he could diſcover their reſidence, he made immediate application to the patent officers, and did not wait for the interference of the collector and controller of the port.

"Notwithſtanding the exertions made by the board of cuſtoms to procure and expedite the returns from which this account could alone be formed, the impediments to the accompliſhment of the work were ſo great, and ſo hardly to be ſurmounted, that a complete return to our requiſition was not delivered to us until the 22d day of February 1786—a period of time ſo remote from the date of our precept, that we judged the foregoing narration, explanatory of the delay, and tending alſo to throw a light upon parts of the official ſyſtem at the out-ports, to be neither immaterial nor unneceſſary.

"In order that the arrangement of the account, and much of the ſubſequent matter contained in this report, may be rendered intelligible, a knowledge of the following particulars is requiſite.

"The out-ports of the cuſtoms, though paſſing under one general denomination, are ſubject to a diſtinction. They are either head ports or members, and are ſo diſtinguiſhed and conſtituted by commiſſions iſſued at different times from the court of exchequer, appointing commiſſioners to aſſign ports, and ſettle their reſpective limits and boundaries. Theſe commiſſions are founded upon the authority of acts of parliament, of which the original are thoſe of the 1ſt of queen Elizabeth, and the 14th of Charles the Second.

"Beſide the out-ports thus comprehended under two diviſions, there is a third claſs or deſcription belonging to the cuſtoms, known by the appellation of creeks.

"The circumſtance which characteriſes a head port, is, that the three patent officers, the cuſtomer, controller, and ſearcher, are each, by their patents, ſpecially appointed to it; and in virtue of that appointment, theſe officers, as far as regards their reſpective offices, exerciſe a juriſdiction and authority over all the members appertaining to the head port, and over all the creeks appertaining either to the head or member ports.

"The member is diſtinguiſhed by a ſubordination to, and dependence upon, the head port, in reſpect to the three patent officers above mentioned; but, except in this ſubjection, it is wholly independent of, and no way different from, the head port.

"A creek, in the language of the cuſtoms, is a place included within the limits either of a head or member

er port, as ſet out by the commiſ-
ons of the court of exchequer, and
t which officers competent to tranſ-
ct the coaſt buſineſs are ſtationed
y order of the board of cuſtoms.
The creek is, in like manner with
ne member port, ſubject to the au-
nority of the patent officers.

" Between the member port and
ne creek there is this eſſential dif-
erence: at the member port all
ranſactions relative to foreign com-
nerce, and every other branch of
ne buſineſs of the cuſtoms, may be
arried on equally as at the head
ort; and at both of them there are
uays, which have been ſet out and
eſcribed in the exchequer commiſ-
ons, where the merchant has a
ight, at legal hours, to land or ſhip
is goods. At the creek no foreign
ommerce can be tranſacted unleſs
by ſpecial ſufferance, obtained, in
very particular inſtance, from the
ead or member port within the
oundaries of which ſuch creek is
tuate; and in thoſe caſes, the du-
ies, if any, muſt, previous to the
btaining the ſufferance, be paid or
ecured at the head or member port:
ut all coaſt buſineſs, of every de-
cription, may be tranſacted at the
reek equally as at the head or
nember port.

" A juriſdiction veſted in the pa-
ent officers, of this diffuſed and ex-
ended nature, muſt of neceſſity be
ttended with the following effect,
hat they cannot be reſident and a-
iding upon all their offices; and
hat, in every caſe where they have
nembers and creeks in dependence,
he buſineſs belonging to their reſ-
pective departments muſt be execut-
ed by perſons appointed to act for
them: and hence the practice of ex-
ecuting their office by deputy ap-
pears to have originated. The
members being, like the head ports,
places where all foreign as well as
coaſt buſineſs may be tranſacted,
the three patent officers are bound
to have their reſpective deputies at
ſuch ports, that the courſe of com-
merce may not be impeded or delay-
ed from the want of officers to con-
duct the buſineſs, which the mer-
chant is entitled to have done. Re-
gularly, the cuſtomers and control-
lers ſhould have deputies at creeks,
in order that the coaſt buſineſs may
be carried on. The ſearcher is an
officer peculiarly and ſolely employ-
ed in tranſactions reſpecting foreign
trade; and thence there is no abſo-
lute occaſion for his having a deputy
at the creek, which is never, but
under ſpecial authority, competent
thereto. On this account, at many
of the creeks, there are not deputy
ſearchers ſtationed: at ſome of them
there are, for the purpoſe of attend-
ing goods ſhipped for foreign parts
by virtue of ſpecial ſufferance;
which buſineſs muſt otherwiſe be
performed by the officer who exe-
cutes that duty at the port where
the ſufferance was granted.

" No duties on imports and ex-
ports being collected at creeks, there
are no collectors for duties of that de-
ſcription appointed to them; but
at ſeveral of the creeks the coal,
which are coaſt duties, are received,
in conſequence of the proper of-
ficers for carrying on that collection
being ſtationed at them by order of
the board of cuſtoms. The coal
duties collected at theſe creeks are,
purſuant to the order of that board,
paid to the collector of the head or
member port of which ſuch creek
is a part, and by him remitted to
the receiver general, and accounted
for with the controller general.
To this general rule, however, there
is one exception, that of Leigh;
where, though it is a creek, and as
ſuch incompetent to the receipt of
duties on imports or exports, the

collector remits the duties received on coals to the receiver general, and paſſes his account of them with the controller general, in like manner as if they were duties ariſing from foreign commerce: and Leigh is accordingly included in the liſt of the out ports.

"From the foregoing diſtinctions the true and ſpecific definition of an out-port appears to be this—A port where there is a collector ſtationed to receive the duties due and payable upon foreign commerce; where all the tranſactions relative thereto, as well as the other buſineſs of the cuſtoms, may regularly and of courſe be carried on; and where the duties collected are remitted to the receiver general, and accounted for with the controller general:—And hence theſe ports are alſo called the accountant ports.

"In order to have before us one general and diſtinct view of the out-port department, previous to our entering upon the account of the officers, we iſſued a precept for a liſt of the out-ports in the office of the cuſtoms, with the denomination by which they are diſtinguiſhed reſpectively.

"It appears from the return, that, excluſive of London, which is a head port, the number of head ports in the cuſtoms is twenty; that of theſe, four have no dependent members, and that the dependence of the member ports is diſtributed among the remaining ſixteen head ports; that there are fifty-one member ports, and that theſe all taken together, making ſeventy-one in number, conſtitute the out-ports of the cuſtoms; to which if Leigh, ſtanding as has been deſcribed in a peculiar ſituation, be added, the number of the out-port will then be, what it is uſually deemed, ſeventy-two. The creeks belonging to the cuſtoms, Leigh not included, a thirty-two.

"This return contains the dat of the exchequer commiſſions, b which the head and member por were ſeverally appointed, except i ſix inſtances, were no entries of tho commiſſions can be found in th books of the cuſtomhouſe.

"In the liſt of the creeks, the por to which they reſpectively appertai are diſtinguiſhed; the dates of th board's orders, whereby the creek were made, do not appear.

"That we might collect ſuch othe materials and information as w judged neceſſary to afford us ſuffic ent knowledge upon the ſubject un der our immediate inveſtigatio we made two farther requiſitions t the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms the one, for a liſt of the offices of th cuſtoms at the out-ports holden b letters patent, with the names of th officers in poſſeſſion of the ſaid o fices, and their reſpective intereſt therein; the other for an accoun of the patent and other officers a the ſeveral out-ports who execut their offices by deputy, with th names of the officers, offices, an their deputies, reſpectively.

"By the return to the firſt of theſ precepts, we are made acquainte with the number and deſcription o the patent offices belonging to th out-ports, by that to the laſt w diſcover in what inſtances the pa tent officers themſelves diſcharge the duties annexed to their employ ments; and to what extent, and a what out-ports or creeks, that, o any other claſs of officers in the cuſtoms, did not in perſon, but by deputy, execute the buſineſs of thei reſpective offices.

"At the port of Briſtol, beſides the three patent officers appointed to every head port, there are four king's waiters included in this liſt

of

of offices holden by letters patent; and at that, and two other head ports, the office of cuſtomer is divided into two branches.

"The number of the patent offices of the cuſtoms at the out-ports is ſixty-ſeven: therein however are comprehended ſome, which, though anciently patent offices, and ſtill conſidered as ſuch, and returned in the above liſt, are at preſent holden by conſtitution. The number of patent officers who acted themſelves, in the year 1784, was ten; of thoſe who acted by deputy, fifty-ſeven; and of deputies, two hundred and ninety-nine. Only one other office, in addition to theſe patent ones, was, in the ſame year, executed at the out-ports by deputy, namely that of coaſt waiter for Sandwich; to which the appointment is in virtue of a treaſury warrant, and whoſe deputy is included in the above number.

"The account we now enter upon, and to which we judged this previous explanation neceſſary, comprehends all the officers of the cuſtoms employed in the out-ports, in the year 1784, claſſed under the ports to which they reſpectively belonged. This account is diſtinguiſhed into the ſeventy-two out ports. They are ranged in the following manner:—the head ports are inſerted in alphabetical order; and where there are member ports dependent upon the head, they are placed in immediate ſucceſſion after it, and diſpoſed likewiſe alphabetically. It appeared eligible to adopt this method of arrangement, in preference to a general alphabetical one, notwithſtanding the account of the controller general, and the other accounts of the cuſtoms, relative to the out-ports, are ſo diſpoſed; becauſe, as this account has ſtrict and ſole relation to the emoluments and payments of the officers, and as thoſe of the patent officers reſult from all the ports under their juriſdiction, whether principal or dependent, and conſtitute a material part of the account, the various ſources of their receipts and diſburſements are, by this mode of diſtribution, brought into one cloſe connected view, inſtead of ſtanding, as they otherwiſe would, diſperſed and apart.

"Though the ſeventy-two out ports alone are kept ſeparate in this account, yet the creeks, where officers of the cuſtoms are alſo ſtationed, are included in it. To theſe creeks no particular diviſion is allotted, but they are entered under the title of the port, either head or member, of which they are a part; and the articles in the returns for them are carried to their proper columns, and blended with the totals of thoſe reſpective ports.

"In this account, the employment, the authority whence the appointment is derived, the inſtrument by which it is held, the different ſources of emolument, the groſs amount, the deductions from that groſs amount, the ſum returned to the public by the payment of taxes, and the net income of each officer, are exhibited under their diſtinct heads. Theſe ſeveral diſtinctions and circumſtances are not partial, but general; they pervade and operate upon the whole department of the cuſtoms, and, as ſuch, the ſyſtem, in regard to them, at the out-ports, is, for the moſt part, analogous to that which prevails in the port of London; conſequently, their origin and ground have been developed, and, with their explanation, are to be found in our laſt Report.

"To avoid uſeleſs repetition, and the incumbrance of ſuperfluous matter, we forbear from reſuming a minute inquiry into thoſe ſubjects,

and deem it ſufficient to refer to that report, and the papers thereto annexed (whence our knowledge was drawn), for particular information; contenting ourſelves here with ſtating generally what was there detailed, and diſcriminating and explaining only thoſe articles in the account which are new or ſpecially connected with the out-ports.

"The officers of the cuſtoms in the out-ports hold their employments either from the crown, by letters patent—from the board of treaſury, by conſtitution, or by treaſury warrant, and the commiſſion of the board of cuſtoms purſuant to that warrant—from the board of cuſtoms by commiſſion, and in ſome inſtances by minute—and, where they are deputies to patent officers, by deputation from the patentee; which deputation is ſubject to the approval of the treaſury, in thoſe caſes where it is ſo expreſſed in the patent. Extra officers, that is, ſuch as are not conſtantly, but occaſionally, employed in the ſervice, act in general under the appointment of the collector and coutroller of the port.

"There are perſons employed by ſome of the officers at the out-ports as clerks, who, from the circumſtance of their not being paid by the crown, nor appointed by any regular formality, are not uſually conſidered as officers of the cuſtoms, and have not been included in returns to requiſitions of a ſimilar nature with this. Theſe clerks, though deriving no emolument from, and creating no diminution in, the produce of the cuſtom duties, do ſometimes receive fees and gratuities in the execution of their buſineſs. Such payments, which are in fact a charge upon the public, and a charge directly connected with the ſubject on which our attention is fixed, would have been loſt in the inquiry, and the reſult thereof rendered ſo far imperfect, if perſons of the above deſcription had been excluded from the account. We therefore required that they ſhould be comprehended in it, wherever any part of their official income appeared to have ariſen from the acceptance of fees or gratuities.

"We found only one ſpecific difference between the authorities and inſtruments by which the officers in the port of London, and thoſe belonging to the out-ports hold their employments, and that takes place in an appointment peculiar to the port of London, and there confined to two officers, both in the ſame department, the appraiſers in the king's warehouſe, who are appointed to their offices by the chancellor of the exchequer, and hold them under his warrant.

"The duration of the intereſts in office affords likewiſe a matter of peculiarity and exception.

"In the port of London, ſome of the patent offices are held for life, and ſome granted in reverſion: at the out-ports, none of the patent officers have a life intereſt in their employments; but they are all ſubject to that general law, which (except in the above inſtances) governs the whole department of the cuſtoms, a tenure during pleaſure only.

"There are other modes of payment by the crown, to the officers of the cuſtoms, than the one of ſalary, and that ſpecies of allowance which ſo nearly reſembles a ſalary that it cannot without difficulty be diſtinguiſhed from it: they conſiſt, as we have ſtated in our laſt Report, of one allowance and four poundages. Of the poundages, that to the inſpector of proſecutions, ariſing from the produce of ſeizures paid into the exchequer, is a ſpecies of reward

eſtricted to London, and to a ſin-
le officer. The quarantine allow-
nce, and two of the remaining
oundages, the one upon the coin-
ge duties, the other upon the groſs
roduce of the ſale of the enumerat-
d goods (called the enumerated
oundage), are ſources of profit
ommon to certain officers, both in
ondon and the out-ports, accord-
ng to the proportions and diſtribu-
ons ſettled by the inſtruments
hich created and authoriſed thoſe
nodes of payment for particular
ervices. The poundage on the coal
uties has ſole reference to the out-
orts (the payments by the crown to
ne officers employed in that collec-
on for the port of London conſiſt-
ng of ſalaries), and as ſuch it is en-
tled to further explanation.

"There are three deſcriptions of
fficers who conduct the collection
f the duties on coals; the collec-
ors — the controllers — and the me-
ers. The appointment of all offi-
ers concerned in this ſervice is, by
ne acts of the 9th and 10th of
Villiam the Third, chapter the 13th,
nd 10th and 11th of William the
hird, chapter the 21ſt, ſpecially
eſted in the commiſſioners of the
uſtoms.

"In the port of London the collec-
on of the coal duties is carried on
y a ſet of officers diſtinct from thoſe
ho collect and control the other
uties of the cuſtoms. At an out-
ort, the collector and controller of
ne reſt of the cuſtom duties do in
eneral manage and tranſact alſo this
ranch of buſineſs; but where they
o, their authority is derived, not
s in their other official capacity,
rom the warrant of the treaſury,
hich nominates, and the commiſ-
on of the board of cuſtoms, which
llows that nomination, and there-
y communicates the right to the
mployment, but from a commiſſion
originating in nomination, as well as in the delegation of authority, ſolely with the board of cuſtoms, and appointing theſe officers, each purſuant to that inſtrument, to be collector and controller of the duties on coals. At creeks where there are no collectors, the board generally appoint the deputy cuſtomer to be collector of the coal duties.—In this account, where the board of cuſtoms have, as is uſual, appointed to the coal department the officers who collect and control the cuſtom duties in general at the port, the authority, though ſpecially flowing from them, is not inſerted, and it is only ſtated where they have made other and diſtinct perſons the collectors and controllers.

"The meters are perſons appointed by commiſſion of the board to execute and carry on the weighing and admeaſurement of coals; and if not officers of the cuſtoms before, they are by that appointment rendered ſo.

"The commiſſion of the board of cuſtoms, appointing officers to the conduct of the coal ſervice, is of a limited effect. It does not, like other commiſſions from that board, impart a general power of ſeizing all prohibited or uncuſtomed goods; but it reſtricts and binds the exerciſe of that right by ſuch officers wholly to the article of coals, and the ſhip or vehicle concerned in the carriage thereof.

"The coal poundage, and the metage, entered in the column of ſalaries and allowances from the crown, are the compenſations received by officers for theſe ſervices, according to the rates eſtabliſhed by the treaſury warrant of the 19th of September 1699, annexed to our laſt report, and ſubjoined here as having immediate connection with the ſubject. Sometimes the collectors, controllers, and meters, have ſalaries,

by

by order of the board, in addition to these allowances of poundage and metage.

"The salaries which the patent officers receive by virtue of their patents, though inserted in the account as being part of their emoluments, are not paid at the out-ports, but by the receiver general, and taken credit for by him in his payments, under their proper head. Sometimes the patent officers have also salaries upon the establishment; and those, as well as all the other salaries, allowances, and emoluments of every kind, proceeding from the crown to the officers at the out-ports, are paid by the collector at the port. These payments are made out of any duties collected on account of the customs, excluding the five excepted branches, unless it be the enumerated poundage and commission, for which the gross produce of seizures and fines is the fund of payment.

"The species of recompence called commission is peculiar to the out-ports. It is an allowance of thirteen shillings and four pence each, to two officers appointed commissioners for calling in proper persons to appraise goods seized, and for superintending the execution of the writ of appraisement issued from the court of exchequer. This writ is directed to the collector, controller, and searcher, at the port; and in virtue of that authority two of these officers become the commissioners, and are entitled to the reward above mentioned.

"The authority to the collector, for paying the officers their salaries and allowances, is transmitted from the board of customs. If the officers are on the establishment, this authority is grounded upon a quarterly warrant of the treasury; if they are on the incidental list, it originates with the board.

"The quarantine allowance paid pursuant to an annual order the board, made in virtue of treasury warrant authorising t order.

"The coinage, poundage, a the coal poundage and metage, paid, the former under the warr of the treasury of the year 1714, latter under that of the year 169 both of course, and without any tervention of the board of custo The original minute of the boa of the 9th of May 1728, is the a thority for the payment of the e merated poundage.

"In the column of fees, allo ances, and gratuities, is entered total sum received by each offi through those several sources of pro The particulars composing those tals, or the authorities, whether law or usage, under which they taken, were in very few instan stated in the returns.

"The land tax, the shilling a sixpenny duties, and the contrib tions by certain officers to the supe annuation fund, comprehend all t payments to which the emolume of the officer is liable for taxes, a which are included under that hea Where the salary of the officers do not exceed sixty pounds a year, t land tax paid upon it is returne by virtue of an annual warrant the treasury directing the repa ment. The officers under this d scription did not in general, in the returns, insert the payment to t land tax, and it is wholly exclud from the account: they appear have omitted the insertion of th article, because their net incom was no way effected by the disburs ment, the same sum being take from and restored to them; and th entry is unnecessary, as the sums refunded are taken credit for by th collector of each port, in his accou of incidents, under the title of lan

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ax on officers ſalaries repaid, and hereby become a charge upon the uſtom duties.

" The ſeveral items forming the otals entered in the column of con-ingent expences, were rarely di-ſtinguiſhed by the officers: where hey were, the principal article was he expence of keeping horſes for the urpoſe of executing the duties of heir employments.

" The ſalary of the patent officer, nd his other emoluments, as well s his payments of every kind, though ppertaining to, and occaſioned by, ll the ports under his juriſdiction, re collected together, and placed in heir reſpective columns in the ac-ount for the head port; and thoſe olumns, as far as concerns the pa-ent officers, are left blank in the ccounts for the member ports. It vould not have been practicable to ave decompounded theſe totals, nd apportioned to each port the recife ſhare thereof which belonged o it; ſuch diſtinctions not being bſerved in the returns of the pa-entees themſelves, and thoſe of heir deputies not ſupplying that nformation.

" The account delivered to us rom the cuſtoms, thus compoſed, ve have modified and altered, as to he diſpoſition of its contents, in the ollowing inſtances.

" We have extracted from the olumn of payments by the crown, nd have carried into a ſeparate co-umn, the ſums paid by the princi-al or other officers to their deputies nd clerks, in order that where theſe ums had been derived from the rown, and included in the pay-ments to the principal, the effect of double charge upon this revenue night be avoided; and that, where hey were paid, not out of ſalaries r allowances flowing from the rown, but out of fees and gratui-ties received from individuals, a charge might not be brought upon this revenue, which it had not in reality ſuſtained. We required by our precept, that the diminution of income to the officer, by his pay-ment for taxes, ſhould be diſtin-guiſhed from his other deductions; becauſe the ſums ſo paid have a pe-culiar deſtination and effect. They re-become a part of the national in-come, and diminiſh the public ex-pence, by the payment back of a certain portion of the ſum iſſued. The contributions to the ſuperan-nuation fund are different in their nature and direction. That fund is an inſtitution eſtabliſhed within, and confined in application to, the department of the cuſtoms. Thoſe contributions, therefore, though conſidered by the officer as a ſpe-cies of tax, and inſerted in the co-lumn under that title, yet, as not being levied on public account, and applied to public uſe, we have ſe-parated, and kept apart in the ac-count.

" Theſe diſtinctions and arrange-ments we have adhered to in form-ing the account of the officers of the cuſtoms at the out-ports, from the ſame motive and to the ſame end which led us to adopt them in the correſpondent account for the port of London, that important end of communicating complete and accu-rate information to the legiſlature, of the total expence borne by govern-ment and the ſubject, in the ſupport of the numerous officers to whom the conduct of this great office of re-ceipt is committed.

" From this account it appears, that in the year 1784, two thouſand eight hundred and ſeventy-ſeven of-ficers and clerks, with many aſſiſt-ants acting upon extra or caſual ſer-vices, of whom no definite number is ſtated, were employed in executing

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the buſineſs of the cuſtoms at the out-ports and creeks of England and Wales;—that the ſalaries and allowances received by them from the public amounted to 96,996*l.* 12*s.* 5*d.* The fees and gratuities from individuals to 51,721*l.* 15*s.* 6¾*d.* That the payment back to the public, by taxes, was 1,740*l.* 8*s.* 10¼*d.* Which, deducted from the amount of the ſalaries and allowances, leaves a real charge upon the public of 95,256*l.* 3*s.* 6¾*d.* And this laſt ſum, added to the amount of fees and gratuities gives 146,977*l.* 19*s.* 1½*d.* The total expence to the public and the ſubject, in that year, on account of the officers of the cuſtoms belonging to the out-ports.

"The ſhare and proportion which the out-ports ſeverally bore in producing this general reſult, may be ſeen by referring to the abſtract at the end of the account; where, among the reſpective totals of the receipts and payments of the officers at each port, will be found, in their proper columns, thoſe ſeparate ſums, from a combination of which the above aggregate total is raiſed.

"One very material part of the inquiry we directed to the port of London, conſiſted in an examination into the duty and employment of the officers principally concerned in ſuperintending or executing the various branches and diviſions of buſineſs into which the office of the cuſtoms is diſtributed. That inveſtigation, though laborious, and of ſlow progreſs, as it tended to bring into immediate compariſon the ſervice performed with the recompence received, we thought it right to inſtitute, avoiding therein minute diſquiſition, and fixing our views on general objects.

"We did not judge the ſame line of conduct to be either expedient or neceſſary reſpecting the out-port various impediments, and many ob jections to that mode of proceedin preſented themſelves. To the ex cution of it the perſonal attendan of officers would have been eſſentia the abſence, from an out-port, the leading and moſt intelligent on (and none others would have ſuite our purpoſe) muſt have occaſione material inconvenience and inte ruption, both to the official buſine and the trade of the port. The coming to appear before us fro places ſo numerous, and ſome them ſo diſtant, as are comprehen ed within the out-port departmer of the cuſtoms, could not have bee effected without inducing expen upon the public; and the advanc ment of our work, of neceſſity ted ous, would have been greatly r tarded by opening this extenſiv field of examination. Theſe ſugge tions, in themſelves of much m ment, were enforced by the follow ing conſideration, not leſs weight and concluſive.

"In the port of London we hav taken up the cuſtom duty at its or gin, and purſued it to its end an application. The leading circum ſtances which intervene in that off cial courſe, we have endeavoured t trace and ſtate. The precautio for guarding the article of com merce, from its arrival in port t the payment of duty; the rule fo aſcertaining the quantum of duty the mode of collection, control, a count, and payment into the trea ſury of the duties collected; th payment out of them by bounty, o re-payment by drawback; the guar placed upon the article exported to ſecure the revenue from fraud with the general regulations an formalities attendant upon theſe re ſpective ſtages, are there deſcribed

"That detail includes the grea outlin

ine of the ſyſtem, whence the
om revenue is created, and the
neſs of the officer conſtituted.
The tranſactions at the out-
ts, operating upon the ſame ſub-
, and governed by the ſame
nciples, muſt paſs through and
dergo a ſimilar order and proceſs.
apprehend, therefore, that the
lt of our enquiries for the port
London, and the information
rein contained, may without dif-
lty, and to ſufficient effect, be
lied to the out-ports. To regu-
that application nothing will be
ting, but a due regard to the pe-
arities ariſing from a difference
he quantity or nature of the bu-
ſs tranſacted, the number or ar-
gement of the officers employed,
thoſe various other circumſtan-
whether commercial or official,
ich eminently diſtinguiſh the
t of London from all the out-
ts, and diverſify the ſeveral out-
ts from each other.

"However, that we might not
glect any means of knowledge
ich could be obtained without
riment to the public, at the time
en occupied in collecting our
terials, we required of the office
the cuſtoms to direct ſuch out-
t officers as were accidentally in
ndon to appear before us. Thoſe
om we had an opportunity of
mining were, Mr. Anthony Pal-
r Collings, deputy cuſtomer out-
rds at the port of Briſtol; Tho-
s Craufurd, eſq. patent ſearch-
at the ſame port; Thomas Bar-
, eſq. at preſent one of the four
neral ſurveyors reſident in Lon-
n, but who had been in va-
us ſucceſſive officers at the port
Portſmouth, of which the col-
tor was the laſt; Mr. John Phi-
s Adams, collector at Milford;
d Mr. Richard Butler, deputy
ntroller at the port of Rye. The
formation derived from the above
officers will be made uſe of, as occaſion may ariſe, in the progreſs of this report.

"Having attained the firſt of the two leading objects of our reſearch, that is the charge upon the crown and the ſubject in the year 1784, ariſing from the payments to the officers employed in the ſeveral out ports of England and Wales, we proceeded to the remaining one, an examination into thoſe other branches of expenditure, whereby the produce of the cuſtoms for the ſame year was reduced.

"That we might procure a general ſtatement of the total receipt and payments of that year, and be enabled to aſcertain what portions of thoſe totals referred to each particular port, we iſſued a precept for an account of the groſs receipt of the cuſtoms, in London and the out-ports, with the ſeveral payments at each port, diſtinguiſhed under the proper heads, and with the net produce of each for the year 1784. From the examinations of Mr. Joſhua Powell, firſt clerk to the controller general of the accounts of the cuſtoms, of Mr. John Mills, aſſiſtant to the receiver general, and Mr. James Powell, chief clerk to the inſpector of the out-port collectors accounts and vouchers, we received the neceſſary information relative to this ſubject, and the returns tranſmitted to us from the reſpective departments to which theſe officers belong.

"The account required by the foregoing precept is a general one, and, it is of ſuch magnitude, and comprehends ſo great a variety and multiplicity of articles and accounts, collected from different ſources, that it is nearly impracticable for it to undergo the proper examination and correction, ſo as to be rendered ſufficiently accurate, in a ſhorter ſpace of time than a year.

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As soon as the account for the year 1784 could be made out, we received it from the office of the customs. The total receipt, in money and bonds, therein stated, is 6,960,642*l.* 7*s.* 2¼*d*; and the net produce, 5,352,032*l.* 6*s.* 1½*d.*

"There are in this account certain ports where the amount of the duties collected did not equal the sum of the expence incurred: these are called negative ports. The deficiency of the receipt to answer the charges at these ports is supplied out of the collection at productive ports: his is done by order of the board; and the mode in use of transmitting the supply, is by a draft on the collector inwards of the port of London, payable to the collector of the deficient port. These impresfs not being included in the payments for salaries and incidents for the port of London, the amount of them must, in order to give the real net produce, be deducted from the total sum entered in the column under that title.

"The number of ports, where the payments exceeded the receipt, in the year 1784, was nine; the amount of those payments, 4,050*l.* 6*s.* 9¾*d.* which, deducted from 5,352,032*l.* 6*s.* 1½*d.* leaves 5,347,981*l.* 19*s.* 3¾*d*, the exact net produce of the year.

"Intent upon one enquiry, namely into the expenditure for managing the custom revenue, we are at present led to the column of salaries and incidents in this account, and our attention confined to the articles comprehended therein. That column includes, without distinction, all charges of management paid out of the custom duties, at each port, within the year. The sum set opposite to the port of London contains the salaries to the patent officers at the out-ports paid by dormant warrants, and those to officers in the plantations paid by receiver general. These payme at every out-port, are for services a ing at the port, except in the case Whitehaven, where a list of o cers of the customs belonging the Isle of Man (which is not wi in the department placed under commissioners of the customs) regularly paid their salaries, p suant to a treasury warrant, out the produce of the duties collec at that port. The total amount these charges is 230,619*l.* 7*s.* 4

"The article of salaries and cidents thus blended in one sum, somewhat complicate, and needs be explained. The term of salari in the official language of the cu toms, is restricted to such as paid upon the establishment, or dormant warrant; and those to incidental officers, though regul and uniform like the former, a classed under the denomination incidents; consequently, the inc dents are compounded of two g neral items—first, the salaries the incidental officers—second, the other disbursements made o of this revenue.

"We have analyzed and state the particulars, and the totals, every species of payment to office in the port of London, and at t out-ports. It remained to obta and investigate the other comp nent part of which the incidental e pences in this account are formed To that end we required "A account of the incidental expence exclusive of the incidental salarie paid out of the duties of the custom by the receiver general, in the po of London for the year 1784;" and "An account of the incidenta expences, exclusive of the incidenta salaries, paid out of the duties o the customs, at the respective out ports

orts, for the year 1784." The mount of these incidental expences, aid by the receiver general, appears by the return to be 9,757*l.* 3*s.* ½*d.* This account is distributed nder certain general heads, whereby the various articles, making up he above sum of expenditure, are anged according to their specific ervices, and the expences severally ncurred for them, distinguished. These heads consist of fees and allowances for making up and passing he accounts—rent—rates and taxes—pensions, and a variety of other ncidental expences, brought into one column.

"The authorities and vouchers, by virtue of which all the payments out of this revenue are made and admitted, were the subject of examination in our 13th Report, which was peculiarly directed to the mode of passing and auditing the accounts of the customs, in the office of the auditors of the imprest. A judgment upon the propriety or necessity of the payments incident to the management of the customs, and the function thereof, must be confided to and rest with that board, to whom the important charge of conducting this department is intrusted; and reliance must be had upon their wisdom and integrity for the discharge of that trust in a manner the most conducive to the public good—subject however, in common with all offices, whether of receipt or expenditure, to the incessant superintending and controlling power with which the lords commissioners of his majesty's treasury are invested, and to the ultimate and supreme interposition of parliament.

"We did not apprehend it to be within the object of our institution, to enter upon any minute inquiry into the particular items of which these and other similar accounts of the customs are composed. Where certain articles, either from the magnitude of the sum, or the title or nature of the service, excited our attention, and appeared to require explanation, to them we deemed it right to have a special regard.

"Observing the entry of a quarterly payment of 608*l.* 16*s.* 6*d.* to William Speer, and others, for making up accounts relating to the customs, we inquired into the ground and cause of that charge; and from Mr. Speer we had the following information. That sum consists of various payments, liable to the shilling and civil list duties, made to several persons; seven of whom are clerks in the revenue office in the treasury. These payments are the annual salaries of those clerks, and were settled by a minute of the treasury in the year 1776, which directed them to be charged upon the duties of the customs, though the business for which they are a recompence is not confined to that office, but extends over the other revenue departments, relative to all which these clerks are employed in making up accounts for the use of the board of treasury, and some of them to be presented to parliament. The single article entered under the head of pension, is an annual allowance of sixty pounds, by special order of the board of customs, for long and faithful service, to an officer who had the misfortune to become insane. The quarterly payments to the principal coal meters, arise from an allowance of one halfpenny per chaldron on all coals imported into the port of London, and are grounded upon the certificate of the

the collector of the coal duties, and paid pursuant to the order of the board of customs.

"At the end of this account there is an entry, consisting of two items, together 726*l.* which requires to be particularly explained. That sum is the amount of the fees which used to be paid for the audit of the cash account of the customs. The accounts of the customs are made up annually to the 5th of January inclusive. It has been the practice of office for the receiver general to take credit, on that day, for the fees which would become due to the auditors of the imprest, upon auditing the cash account of the customs, and to retain that sum in his hands until the account was finally audited. According to the usual course this article was entered as a payment, by the receiver general, on the 5th of January 1785. Before the cash account could be got ready, and delivered into the office of the auditors of the imprest, a change had taken place in the system of passing the public accounts of the kingdom; in consequence whereof, among other regulations, it was enacted by the legislature, that all receipt of fees, gratuities, or perquisites, in the office where the public accounts are audited, should forthwith be abolished. This sum, therefore, of 726*l.* reserved in the receiver general's hands for the purpose of answering a charge thus put an end to, will be carried back to the respective branches from which it was taken, and the expenditure of the year 1784 will in fact be diminished, and the produce increased, to that amount; though, according to the mode of adjusting the accounts in such cases, the repayment will go in augmentation of the produce of that year when it is is ordered to b made.

"The amount of the incidenta expences, exclusive of the inciden tal salaries, paid out of the custom duties, at the respective out ports of England and Wales, fo the year 1784, was 17,496*l.* 11*s.* 10½*d.* Each port is kept distinct in the account, and the total expence at each, digested under a few general heads; of which, rent — tradesmen's bills—land tax repaid—and petties, a term including many trifling charges not reducible to any particular class of service, are the principal.

"The payments out of the customs, in the year 1784, for the management of that revenue, hitherto stated, are included in the account of the controller general, and they are all which that account, though a general one, comprehends. Much is still wanting to render the state, not merely of the expenditure, but also of the receipt, of the year complete. The controller general has not a knowledge of the produce of seizures, and from fines, nor of the charges defrayed out of that fund: he takes official notice of neither. The duties arising in the plantations are within his cognizance and control; but no part of the receipts contained in this account, and only so much of the expenditure relative thereto as is paid by the receiver general in England.

"The management of the customs in Scotland being conducted by a distinct board, the commissioners for England are wholly ignorant of the charges attending that collection, and know no more of the duties received than what appears upon the weekly certificate of the receiver general to have been remitted from thence. Such part of

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ıe produce of the cuſtoms in Scot-
ınd, as paſſes into the exchequer,
remitted by the receiver general
or that country to the receiver ge-
eral in England, and by him paid
; and of this remittance the con-
oller general has official informa-
on from the controller general for
cotland: but the duties ſo tranſmit-
d are not inſerted in this account,
hich is confined to thoſe collected
the ports of England and Wales.
he controller general's account
oes not exhibit the ſum yielded
rough this revenue to the ſtate,
d of which the public did in fact
ıally profit; that is the amount
the cuſtoms paid into the exche-
ıer.

" To ſupply theſe deficiences,
d form as perfect a ſtatement for
e year as it was in our power to
ocure, we iſſued precepts for the
llowing returns:—" An account
the groſs ſums ariſing from the
oduce of ſeizures, and from fines,
gether with the amount of the
arges of condemnation and ſale,
d of the ſhares of the crown, and
zing officers, and of the pay-
ents out of the ſhares of the crown
charges of management, and
o the receipt of his majeſty's ex-
equer for the year 1784; diſtin-
iſhing what part of the ſaid ſums
s been received and paid by the
eivers of fines and forfeitures for
ndon and the out-ports and by
ſolicitors, reſpectively."

" An account of the groſs an-
al ſalaries and allowances of the
cers of the cuſtoms in the plan-
ions, for the year 1784; diſtin-
iſhing the ports, and by what au-
rity the officers are ſeverally ap-
nted."

" An account of the groſs amount
the duties ariſing in the planta-
ns, and of the charges of manage-
nt, and of the net produce there-
789.

of, for the year 1784; diſtinguiſh-
ing the ſeveral ports, and the charges
paid by the receiver general, from
the other charges."

" An account of the total ſum
paid by the receiver general of the
cuſtoms into the receipt of his ma-
jeſty's exchequer, for the year 1784."

" The produce of ſeizures, and
from fines, does not ariſe, and is
not conducted, in the ſame manner
with the other branches of the cuſ-
tom revenue. It is the reſult, not
of duties collected upon articles of
commerce, but of certain proviſions
inſtituted by law as a puniſhment
for having evaded the payment of
the legal duties, or offended againſt,
or neglected to comply with, ſome
of the other requiſites enjoined by
the legiſlature. Theſe proviſions
are directed either againſt the of-
fender, or the ſubject matter of the
offence; and where terminating in
the payment of a ſum as a penalty,
fine, or compoſition, or in the
forfeiture of the goods ſeized to be
diſpoſed of according to law, thence
is derived a fund, which is the ſub-
ject of the account we proceed to
explain. We were made acquaint-
ed therewith by the examination of
Mr. John Baſtin, annexed to our
laſt Report, and ſubjoined again to
this, for the ſake of more eaſy re-
ference.

" Where goods which have been
ſeized, and proſecuted to condem-
nation, are ſold, the produce there-
of ſubmits to this uniform courſe:
—From the groſs produce of the
ſale, certain charges, entitled thoſe
of condemnation and ſale, are firſt
deducted. Theſe charges conſiſt of
the payments to all the officers em-
ployed in the condemnation and
ſale, and of the poundages out of
the groſs produce of particular ſpe-
cies of ſeizures to which certain of-
ficers of the cuſtoms are entitled.

"The poundages due to the officers in London, on goods sold at an out-port, are remitted to the receiver for the out-ports, taken credit for by the collector, and included in the charges paid at the port.

"The above deductions having been made, the residue of the gross amount of the sale is divided between the king and seizing officer, according to the proportion directed by the acts which regulate the seizure. The portion of this division accruing to the crown is called the king's net share.

"The king's net share, arising in London, is paid by the warehouse-keeper into the hands of the receiver of fines and forfeitures for London. That which arises at the out-ports, is liable, in the hands of the collector at each port, to the charges of maintaining the custom-house cruizers, and to such other incidental expences as the commissioners of the customs may think proper to order; and those charges being satisfied, or such sums retained as may be wanted to defray them, the remainder of the king's net share is remitted by the several collectors to the receiver of fines and forfeitures for the out-ports. The sums thus remitted become a fund in the hands of this receiver, applicable, in like manner with that created in London, and in the hands of the other receiver, to various charges of management incurred on account of the customs in the port of London. Most of these charges are, by the orders of the board, directed for payment upon the receiver for the out-ports; and if that officer has not a sufficiency to answer the demands, a supply to him is ordered to be made by the receiver for London; and in case his fund should prove also insufficient, the receiver general is, by like order, directed to impress such sums as are wanted by the receiver for the out-ports.

"In the year 1785, apparently from the effect of the act which directed condemned spirits to be split and of other acts whereby smuggling received a check, the funds in the hands of the two receivers proved very deficient, and sums to a considerable amount were impressed by the receiver general, to the receiver for the out-ports. The sums paid by the collectors at the out-ports, out of the king's net share of seizures, are principally for the maintenance of cruizers and boats and the expences connected therewith.

"That we might be made acquainted with the services to which the payments by the receivers for London and the out-ports were severally applied, and with the charges attendant upon those services respectively, we required that the total sums paid by each receiver should in the account be decompounded, and brought under general heads. Thence it appears, that in the port of London, though the maintaining the cruizing vessels is one, yet it is by no means the principal article of expence with which these funds are charged, and that they are not limited to any one service, but liable indiscriminately to different charges of management. Such part of the king's net share of seizures, as remains unexhausted by these charges, is paid into the exchequer by the two receivers for London and the out-ports.

"The produce of fines, or compositions upon seizures, is rarely subject to any charges of condemnation. The share thereof resulting to the crown is charged with some regular annual allowances to officers

ne cuſtoms, and ſome other trifling xpences; after ſatisfying which, ne reſidue is paid into the exche- uer by the reſpective ſolicitors of ne cuſtoms, in whoſe department it to receive and account for this roduce.

"The account we have thus ex- lained, preſents a complete view of ne riſe and ultimate diſpoſal of that ranch of the cuſtom revenue, both London and at the ſeveral out- orts, which is derived from ſeiz- res and fines. In ſo doing, it in- olves two ſubjects, each diſtinct in ſelf and kept apart in the ſtatement, ut both cloſely connected, inaſ- uch as out of the determination of ne one the other ariſes. The firſt onſiſts of the groſs produce of con- emned ſeized goods, and from nes; the charges paid out of that roduce; his majeſty's net ſhare; nd the ſeizing officer's part. The econd comprehends the king's net hare produced by the above divi- on; the expences defrayed there- om at each out-port; the balance eſerved by the collector; and the art remitted to the receiver for the ut-ports; the payments made by ne two receivers of fines and forfei- ures, and the ſolicitors, for charges f management; and the ſums aid by them into the exchequer, eſpectively. Thence it appears, hat the groſs produce of ſeizures London, for the year 1784, as 62,042*l.* 2*s.* 11¾*d.* His majeſ- 's net ſhare, 31,598*l.* 17*s.* 6¾*d.* he charges of condemnation and le, 7,449*l.* 19*s.* 9¼*d.* The ſeizing fficer's part, 22,993*l.* 5*s.* 7¼*d.*

"The groſs produce of ſeizures at ne out ports, was 136,322*l.* 16*s.* 2¾*d.* is majeſty's net ſhare, 69,955*l.* 8*s.* 10¾*d.* The charges of con- emnation and ſale, 16,651*l.* 8*s.* 5¼*d.* he ſeizing officer's part, 49,715*l.* *s.* 10¾*d.* The groſs produce of fines, in the ſame year, was 6,093*l.* 6*s.* 11*d.* His majeſty's net ſhare, 4,184*l.* 12*s.* 7½*d.* The charges of condemnation, 33*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* The ſeizing officers part, 1,875*l.* 6*s.* 9½*d.*

"The groſs produce of ſeizures in London, and at the out-ports, to- gether with that from fines, was 204,458*l.* 6*s.* 1*d.* His majeſty's net ſhare thereof, was 105,739*l.* 9*s.* 1*d.* and, conſequently, the total charge incurred, was 98,718*l.* 17*s.* of which ſum, 24,134*l.* 15*s.* 8½*d.* was paid for the charges of condem- nation and ſale, 74,584*l.* 1*s.* 3½*d.* to the officers who made the ſeizures.

The payments for charges of ma- nagement, made out of the king's net ſhare of ſeizures ariſing in the port of London, amounted to 11,692*l.* 17*s.* 5*d.* and the ſum paid into the exchequer to 19,906*l.* —*s.* 1¾*d.*

"Of the king's net ſhare produced at the out-ports, 34,432*l.* 18*s.* 10½*d.* was expended in charges of manage- ment at the ſeveral ports; 23,257*l.* 14*s.* 4½*d.* in charges of manage- ment for the port of London; and 2,500*l.* was paid into the ex- chequer.

"The ſum paid out of the king's net ſhare of fines, for charges, was 275*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* and into the exche- quer, 3,555*l.* 16*s.* 5*d.*

"The amount of theſe payments into the exchequer, by the receiv- ers and ſolicitors of the cuſtoms was 25,961*l.* 16*s.* 6¾*d.* of the balances remaining in the hands of the col- lectors at the out-ports, 9,765*l.* 5*s.* 7¾*d.* of that in the hands of the ſolicitor for London and the weſ- tern ports, 353*l.* 2*s.* 10½*d.* which three ſums brought together, and making 36,080*l.* 5*s.* 1*d.* being ſub- tracted from 105,739*l.* 9*s.* 1*d.* the total of the king's net ſhare of ſeizures and fines in London and at the out-ports, give 69,655*l.* 4*s.* the

whole charges for management defrayed out of that ſhare: and if thereto be added 98,718*l.* 17*s.*—. the diminution to which the groſs produce of ſeizures and fines was ſubject, it will be ſhewn that 168,378*l.* 1*s.*—. was the exact ſum paid by the public, in the year 1784, for the various ſervices ſtated in the above account.

"The maintenance of the veſſels and boats employed in the cuſtoms, forms nearly the ſole head of expenditure at the out-ports, and a conſiderable one among thoſe in the port of London, to which the king's net ſhare of ſeizures is applied.

"As the cruizers conſtitute a peculiar and extenſive branch of ſervice, and as many perſons are concerned in the conduct thereof, who are officers of the cuſtoms, and were none of them included in the liſts of officers returned to us, either for London or the out-ports, we deemed it proper to bring the cruizing veſſels, and the expences attending them, into one collective view. We accordingly procured an account of the number of cruizers employed in the ſervice of the cuſtoms, for the year 1784, with the complement of men belonging to each cruizer, at what port ſtationed, the amount of the expence of each, and at what port paid. From that account, and the examination of Mr. Samuel Brown, ſurveyor for ſloops, and of Mr. John Baſtin, we obtained a knowledge of the moſt material circumſtances relating to this ſubject.

"The cruizers belonging to the cuſtoms are maintained in two different modes; one upon the eſtabliſhment, the other by contract. When upon the eſtabliſhment, the veſſel herſelf is the property of the crown, and all the expences of every kind, incurred by her, are paid quarterly out of the cuſtom revenue, and by the collector of the port where ſhe is ſ tioned, except in a ſingle inſtance a veſſel ſtationed at Feverſham, a paid in London.

"There are two ſpecies of co tracts; in one of them the veſſel furniſhed by the crown, and charge made for her hire; but t outfit, future repairs, wages, vict alling, and all other expences, a paid out of the produce of h ſeizures; and, after thoſe dedu tions, the remainder, if any, is d vided between the crown and t contractor. If, however, the amou of her ſeizures ſhould prove inſuf cient to defray thoſe expences, t deficiency is ſupplied by the crow and contractor, in equal propo tions. In the other kind of contra the contractor provides the veſſel, the rate of four ſhillings and pence per ton, per lunar mont for which allowance he his bou to find the outfit, and all repai This payment for hire, and all t remaining charges incurred by t veſſel, are, in this as in the form contract, borne out of the produce her ſeizures; and the ſurplus divi ed, or the failure made goo equally between the contracting p ties. Theſe contracts are formed a minute of the board of cuſtom and, when entered into, a letter ſent from the board to the collect and controller at the port where t veſſel is to be ſtationed, ſpecifyi the name of the contractor, and t terms of the contract, that is, t hire (in caſe the veſſel is upon hir the number of men, and the allo ance for wages, victualling, a other charges. It is the duty thoſe two officers to ſee that the v ſel is conſtantly cruizing, that is kept in complete repair, and every reſpect fit for the ſervic that ſhe has her full complement men on board, which they are de

dered to certify upon the back of the journals of the mates and the commanders of veſſels; and if the mariners be ſhort of the number allowed by the crown, they are to certify that deductions for the wages and victualling have been made accordingly.

" At many of the out-ports, the collectors and controllers at the port where the veſſel is ſtationed, are themſelves either jointly or ſeparately, the contractors. In the year under our enquiry twenty-four cruizers were employed by contract, and of them ſixteen were contracted for with thoſe two officers together, or with one of them.

" From the account we learn that forty-four cruizers were employed in the year 1784, and the number of men belonging to them, one thouſand and forty-one. Of the perſons who ſerve on board, the commander, the chief and ſecond mates, and, in ſome of the larger veſſels, one mariner called a deputed mariner, are officers of the cuſtoms, by virtue of a commiſſion from the board. The officers of the cruizers upon the eſtabliſhment are in general appointed by the board, purſuant to warrants from the treaſury. The officers of thoſe upon contract, are recommended by the contractor, and appointed by the board. The pay of the maſter is fifty pounds a year; of the chief mate either thirty-five or thirty; and of each of the reſt of the crew, fifteen pounds. The allowance for victualling is nine pence a day to each man on board, and for fire and candle one ſhilling each by the lunar month.

" The total expence for the maintenance of theſe forty-four cruizers is ſtated at 44,355*l.* 16*s.* 11*d.* This ſum, however, does not accord with the amount of the ſeveral payments inſerted in the account of ſeizures and fines, as having been made out of the king's net ſhare of ſeizures, for this ſervice, in the port of London, and at the different out-ports. The reaſon of the difference is, that the ſurveyor for ſloops, in his account, ſtates the full charge that each veſſel will ſtand at for the year, every circumſtance and article of coſt included; and this he is enabled to do, either from the bills already delivered into his office (through which all expenditure relative to the cruizers paſſes), or, where the bills are not yet received, from computations grounded upon his knowledge of the particulars by which the expence can be aſcertained. The accountant of petty receipts ſtates only the ſums actually paid out of the king's net ſhare, on this head of ſervice, at each port, within the year. The whole charge incurred could not be brought into his account. The eſtabliſhed cruizers create a regular annual expence, and the accounts reſpecting them are tranſmitted to his office quarterly from the ports. The accounts for thoſe upon contract are not received at fixed periods; and, by the terms of the contract, where the ſhare of the ſeizing officer would legally only amount to a third, the difference between that and a moiety is made good to the contractor (who appears to be conſidered as the ſame perſon with the ſeizing officer) in order that his ſhare may be rendered equal with the ſhare of the crown. As the diviſion of the produce of all ſeizures is fixed by law, a general account muſt be made out conformably to that rule; but for each of theſe contract cruizers there is a neceſſity of forming a ſecond and diſtinct account, in which the contractor having credit for the differ-

ences between the thirds and moieties above ſtated, and the charges of the cruizer being brought againſt her produce, it finally appears whether a balance is due from the crown to the coutractors, or from the contractor to the crown: and this balance when ſettled, is either carried to or paid out of, the king's net ſhare, at the port where the veſſel is ſtationed, under a ſpecial order of the board. From theſe circumſtances the accounts of the contract veſſels are more dilatory, in their ultimate adjuſtment and liquidation, than thoſe of the veſſels upon the eſtabliſhment.

"The cuſtom duties collected in the plantations, and the charges attending the management of that collection, for the year 1784, form the next and laſt object to which we are led in the proſecution of this line of inquiry.

"From two accounts, returned purſuant to our precepts, and the examinations of Mr. John Timothy Swainſon, plantation clerk in the office of the ſecretary of the cuſtoms, and of Mr. Joſhua Powel, chief clerk to the controller general, in whoſe office the plantation accounts are paſſed, we were ſupplied with the information here requiſite.

"The account of the groſs annual ſalaries, and allowanees of the officers, contains all the officers of the cuſtoms in the plantations, during the year 1784, whether belonging to the Weſt India iſlands, or to the American ports. It muſt therefore include the officers who conducted the buſineſs of the cuſtoms at the iſlands ſubject to the duty of $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. which are ſix; Barbadoes, Antigua, St. Chriſtophers, Montſerrat, Nevis, and Tortola. The ſalaries and allowances to the officers, as well all other expences of every kind, incurred on account of the cuſtoms, at thoſe iſlands, are, with one trifling regular exceptior at Montſerrat (an accidental payment out of ſeizures at the port o St. John's, Antigua, occurring alſo in 1784), paid, not out of th receipt of that revenue, but eithe by the collectors at the ſeveral ports or by the huſband in England, ou of the produce of the $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent duty. Hence it became neceſſary t diſtinguiſh and keep ſeparate, i this account, the officers ſtatione at thoſe ſix iſlands; becauſe, nc being a charge upon the cuſtom du ties, nor ſupported out of a publi fund, they do not occaſion that ſpe cies of expenditure to which ou inveſtigations are ſpecially directed and, accordingly, our examination and the conſequent matter ſtated, ar not to be underſtood as having ha thoſe officers in view, though i many reſpects applicable to them.

"The officers in the plantatior are appointed by the commiſſions c the board of cuſtoms, purſuant t treaſury warrants, except in a fe inſtances, enumerated at the b ginning of the account, where th appointment to the office is ſolel in the board of cuſtoms: they hav ſalaries, and incidental allowance In the year 1784, the ſalaries to a the plantation officers upon the eſt bliſhment were paid in England b the receiver general; but by a r gulation of the ſubſequent year, th collectors and controllers only a to receive their ſalaries in that mod and thoſe to the inferior officers a to be paid at the port, unleſs th growing receipt of duties ſhould b inſufficient for that purpoſe; which caſe, upon a certificate ther of being tranſmitted by the collec and controller to the board, an o der for the payment of them is to b made upon the receiver genera To prevent a dilatory and irregul tranſmiſſion of the accounts, accor

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ing to a recent regulation, none of the collectors or controllers in the plantations are entitled to receive their salaries, which are paid half yearly, until the quarterly accounts of the receipts and disbursements for that half year, at their respective ports, have been sent over to the board. The incidental allowances, which are some of them made in sterling money, and some in the currency of the island, are annual, and fixed by the board, to enable, the officers to provide themselves with cerain articles necessary for the service, and set opposite to the sums entered in the column under that title. These allowances as regulated in the year 1785, are to be paid at the port, provided there be a sufficiency of receipt; and if not, the failure is, in like manner as in the case of the salaries, to be certified to the board, and payment by the receiver general to be ordered.

" The officers in the plantations take fees, under the authority of various acts of parliament

" Apprized of the difficulty, and nearly the impracticability, of obtaining within a period of time, and to a degree of completeness and accuracy suited to our end, the amount of the fees and gratuities received by those officers, many in number, residing at ports distant and dispersed, and precluded of necessity from every channel of speedy intercourse, information, or correction, relative to their returns, we omitted, as most advisable, to include that requisition in our precept respecting the plantation officers.

" The number of the officers employed in the plantations for the year 1784 (including those at the islands where the $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. duty is collected) was one hundred and thirty-five. The total of the annual salaries due, out of the custom revenue, to the officers for that year as stated in the above account, is 5,270*l.* of the incidental allowances, in sterling, 1,052*l.* 10*s.* —. and in currency, 598*l.* Some of the salaries were not paid in that year; the payment of them being stopped by order of the board, for nontransmission of accounts, or other causes, and the attornies in England having in some instances neglected to apply for them.

" To get at the exact amount of the payments actually made to the officers, and on all other heads of service, as well as of the total produce of the duties for the year, recourse must be had to the other account returned to us. That account gives the gross receipt of the duties arising in the plantations (in which the king's net share of seizures is also comprehended); the charges of management for each port, distinguishing those paid at the port, from those paid by the receiver general in England; and the net produce for the year 1784. The incidental allowances, paid in currency at the ports, are here reduced into sterling money; and the means of doing it is the certificate of the governor of the island, on the accounts sent over by the collector, ascertaining the value of the currency for every quarter.

" The islands and provinces contained in this account are sixteen; the number of ports twenty-six. To these, in the year 1785, three more were added: New Brunswick, Port Roseway, and Cape Breton.

" At many of the plantation ports, the receipt is unequal to the expenditure; and in those cases, the collector of the port must either himself advance the money wanted to defray the charges, or he must transmit a certificate to the board of the deficiency, in order that the payment may be made in England:

if he advances the money, the balance due to him is paid by the receiver general, upon the production of proper vouchers and receipts for the ſums charged in his account.

" From this account it appears, that the groſs amount of the cuſtom receipt in the plantations was 5,305*l.* 1*s.* —½*d.* the total of the payments for the ſeveral ports then belonging to the plantation department, 5,300*l.* 13*s.* 4¼*d.* and the net produce, after deducting the charges at the deficient ports, which were ſixteen in number, 4*l.* 7*s.* 8¼*d.* There are, however, ſubjoined to the account, arrears paid in this year for ſervices which had accrued at three ports, previous to their ceſſion by the laſt treaty of peace; theſe added, make the total of the payments to be 6,106*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.* and conſequently it exceeded the receipt of the year by 801*l.* 8*s.* 2¾*d.*

" Though the duties received in the plantations, if compared with the total payment for management in the year 1784, appeared not only to have been exhauſted, but deficient, yet, as will be ſeen by a ſubſequent account, the receiver general paid a ſum the ſame year into the exchequer, on the head of the plantations, nearly equal to the groſs receipt ſtated in this account—An apparent difference, requiring to be reconciled; and of which the explanation is as follows.

" The account, of which we have been treating is reſtricted to the actual receipt and payments of the year. The ſum paid into the exchequer by the receiver general, aroſe from the collection of former years, either not remitted from the plantations, or, if remitted, not converted into caſh till that year; and from duties collected and remitted that year, but when in the hands of the receiver general, no applied to charges of management for the ſervice of the plantations it being the practice to defray moſ of thoſe charges in England, no out of the produce of the plantatio duties, but out of that of the cuſ toms collected in England.

" We have thus procured an inveſtigated the different account eſſential to impart a complete know ledge of the charges incurred in the management of the cuſtom duties for the year 1784.

" That we may bring the reſul of our inquiries into a combined view, and exhibit, in one ſum, the whole coſt of conducting this branch of the public revenue in that year, we proceed to recapitulate and blend the totals ſtated in thoſe reſpective accounts.

" The real charge upon the public, for the payment of the officers employed in the office of the cuſtoms and port of London, as given in our laſt report, was 100,888*l.* 15*s.* 5¾*d.* and upon individuals, 64,079*l.* 8*s* —½*d.* together, 164,968*l.* 3*s.* 6¼*d.* The real charge upon the public, for the payment of the officers belonging to the out ports, we have found to be 95,256*l.* 3*s.* 6¾*d*; and upon individuals, 51,721*l.* 15*s.* 6¾*d.* together, 146,977*l.* 19*s.* 1½*d.* The incidental expences excluſive of the incidental ſalaries paid by the receiver general, amounted to 9,757*l.* 3*s.* 7½*d.* thoſe paid by the collectors at the out-ports, to 17,496*l.* 11*s.* 10½*d.* The total diminution of the produce of ſeizures and fines, by payments for ſervices, either out of the groſs amount or out of the king's net ſhare, was 168,378*l.* 1*s.* —. The ſum paid in charges of management, on account of the cuſtom duties collected in the plantations, was 6,106*l.* 9*s.* 3¼*d.*

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" Theſe ſeveral totals brought ogether give 513,684*l.* 8*s.* 5*d.* The portion thereof paid out of the revenue of the cuſtoms amounts to 397,883*l.* 4*s.* 9¾*d.* But from this otal muſt be deducted the amount of the poundages and allowances o officers out of the groſs produce of ſeizures, and alſo the amount of he ſalaries and allowances to offiers out of the king's net ſhare of he produce of ſeizures; becauſe the fficers, in their return to us of their moluments for the year, charged hemſelves with thoſe ſums; and in he account of the diſburſements out f thoſe two funds, theſe payments o officers are alſo taken credit for.

" To avoid the error of double harge, and render the ſtatement orrect, we acquired the account nnexed: thence it appears that here was paid, in allowances and oundages to officers, in London nd at the out-ports, out of the roſs produce of ſeizures, 10,189*l.* 2*s.* 1¼*d*; and in ſalaries and allowances to officers in London out of he king's net ſhare of the produce f ſeizures, 4,399*l.* 5*s.* 5¾*d.* Theſe ums together, 14,588*l.* 17*s.* 7*d.* educted from 397,883*l.* 4*s.* 9¾*d.* ave 383,294*l.* 7*s.* 2¾*d*, the exact otal charge borne by the public: o which 115,801*l*, 3*s.* 7¼*d*, the otal of the payments by individuals, being added, there will reſult 99,095*l.* 10*s.* 10*d.* and in that otal, the amount of the fees and ratuities received by the officers in he plantations is not included.—uch was the expence induced by he cuſtoms in the year 1784. What at revenue contributed to the naonal income, in the ſame year, ppears to be as follows.

" The receiver general paid into e exchequer, on account of e cuſtoms, in the year 1784, 316,153*l.* 8*s.* 3¾*d.*

" The payments into the exchequer, by the receivers of fines and forfeitures for London and the outports, and by the ſolicitors of the cuſtoms, were 25,961*l.* 16*s.* 6¾*d.*

" There was alſo a ſum paid into the exchequer that year, by Mr. George Litchfield, the ſolicitor for carrying on criminal proſecutions in the cuſtoms, and recovering debts due on bonds. This ſolicitor pays, by order of the board of cuſtoms, the penalties recovered, either into the exchequer, or into the hands of the receivers of fines and forfeitures; and the debts recovered by order of the court of exchequer, or of that board, into the exchequer, into the hands of the receiver general, or of the receivers of fines and forfeitures. The return to our requiſition ſtates the payment into the exchequer, made by this ſolicitor, in the year 1784, to be 155*l.*

" Theſe ſeveral ſums brought together make 3,342,270*l.* 4*s.* 10½*d.* the total produce of the cuſtom revenue, which paſſed into the public treaſury, and was ultimately availed of, in the year 1784.

" We are enjoined, by the acts which regulate our proceedings, to report an exact ſtate of the fees or gratuities paid or given in collecting, iſſuing, expending, and accounting for, the public monies, and the authority under which ſuch fees or gratuities are paid or received.

" The account of the emoluments of the officers of the cuſtoms at the out-ports ſupplied us with a knowledge of the amount of the fees and gratuities taken, in the year 1784, by thoſe officers reſpectively, and has enabled us to ſtate the total ſum received by them through thoſe modes of payment.

" That we might yield due obedience to the injunctions of the legiſlature, a farther inquiry became neceſſary;

ceſſary; namely, into the ſeveral fees and gratuities which the officers at the out-ports claim or receive, and into the authority under which ſuch fees and gratuities are required or taken:—an information not to be procured from the account above referred to, nor from the materials out of which it was raiſed.

"The fee differing eſſentially from the gratuity, we ſhall make them each the object of a diſtinct examination.

"Of the rules ſubjoined to the book of rates, and annexed to the act of tonnage and poundage, the twenty-fourth ordains, That no officer, clerk, or other, belonging to any cuſtomhouſe whatſoever, ſhall exact, require, or receive any other or greater fee, of any merchant or other whatſoever, than ſuch as are or ſhall be eſtabliſhed by the commons, in parliament aſſembled: if any officer or other ſhall offend contrary to this order, he ſhall forfeit his office and place, and be for ever after uncapable of any office in the cuſtomhouſe.

"Looking to this regulation as our guide, we deemed it, in the firſt place, requiſite to aſcertain what fees had been eſtabliſhed by parliament; and accordingly, when engaged in an inveſtigation of a ſimilar kind, reſpecting the port of London, we iſſued a precept for an account of ſuch fees as the officers of the cuſtoms are authoriſed to take, by virtue of any act of parliament, and for what buſineſs ſuch fees are payable.

"To that requiſition, which was general, there were tranſmitted to us, beſides the returns for the port of London, four tables of fees referring ſolely to the out-ports.

Theſe tables belong to the ports of Briſtol, Great Yarmouth Kingſton upon Hull, and Cheſter; and they were iſſued or confirmed by virtue of an order of the houſe of commons, of the 17th of May 166 or the 11th of April 1670. We annexed theſe tables to our laſt Repo concluding that they were the on exiſtent authorities of ſuch a deſcri tion for fees taken by the out-po officers: but from the examinati of Mr. John Philipps Adams, t collector of Milford, we learne that there was at that port a tab with words written at the bottom it, importing the order of the hou of commons.

"No table for the port of Milfo having been returned purſuant our precept, we directed a farth reſearch to be made in the office the cuſtoms, to the end that if the did exiſt, for that or any other po tables of fees founded upon parli mentary authority, and not alrea delivered to us, they might be pr duced, and none ſtanding under th ſanction be omitted.

"In conſequence of this renew inquiry, four tables, in addition thoſe inſerted in the Appendix to o laſt Report, have been diſcover Theſe tables are for the ports Ipſwich, Milford, Poole, and Sar wich. Thus it appears that the are eight out-ports, for which tab of fees and allowances have be made, ſettled, or confirmed, unc the authority of the houſe of co mons: they are all head por The tables, as the title prefixed each indicates, were appointed a meant to be alſo in force at the ſe ral members and creeks depende upon theſe head ports reſpectivel though in the caſe of Great Ya mouth, notwithſtanding that tit there is ſubjoined a ſeparate table fees and allowances due and payab in every of the out-ports, memb of that port; and this latter tab in ſome inſtances, differs materia fr

rom the former, both as to the quantum and the diviſion of the ee.

" From the examination of Mr. George Litchfield we collect, that eſides the fees thus authorized, here are alſo ſome fees allowed and ixed by particular acts of parliaent; but theſe are very few in umber, confined to certain officers, o peculiar ports, and to ſpecial ſervices enumerated in thoſe acts.

" The fees taken by the officers of the cuſtoms at the out-ports nd creeks, in virtue of the authority, either of the tables above deſcribed, or of theſe ſpecific acts, ppear to comprehend all ſuch as nave been eſtabliſhed by the commons in parliament aſſembled, and, conſequently, all which come under the purview of the rule cited at the commencement of this inquiry.

" The fees taken by the officers, and not included in theſe tables or acts, ſeem to reſt ſolely upon the ground of uſage.

" By a clauſe in the act of tonnage and poundage, where the goods exported or imported amount to the value of five pounds or more, the cuſtomers and collectors, and all other his majeſty's officers in the ſeveral ports, ſhall take and receive ſuch fees, and no other, as were taken in the fourth year of the late king James, until ſuch time as the ſaid fees ſhall be otherwiſe ſettled by authority of parliament. We made application to the office of the cuſtoms reſpecting the ſubject matter of this clauſe; but we could not find that there was any table or record in being of the fees taken at the period referred to.

" Theſe parliamentary tables are of ancient date, aſſigned only to certain ports; the fees contained in them few, and affecting only the patent officers (except in the caſe of Kingſton upon Hull, where a clerk is inſerted): they were framed at a time when the buſineſs of the cuſtoms, and the extent of that department, had little reſemblance to their actual ſtate at this day. It was therefore to be preſumed, that the ſtatement of fees hitherto obtained could not be complete. To poſſeſs ourſelves of full knowledge upon the ſubject, we iſſued a precept for an account of all fees uſually taken by the ſeveral officers of the cuſtoms, including patentees, deputies, and clerks, and all others, of every deſcription whatever, in the out-ports; diſtinguiſhing for what buſineſs or documents, and for the uſe of what officer, ſuch fees are paid, excluſive of ſtamps.

" The returns to this laſt requiſition proved to be numerous and extenſive.

" We had it originally in contemplation to annex to our report all the accounts of fees tranſmitted from the out-ports and creeks, of whatever deſcription conſiſting, and upon whatever authority grounded: but, having examined and conſidered the number, ſize, and contents of theſe accounts, we judged it expedient, upon mature deliberation, to depart from that plan, and, inſtead thereof, to ſubjoin only a certain number of them, ſelected as ſpecimens. And whilſt, by that means, we avoid encumbering our report with many voluminous and unwieldly papers, ſerving to ſwell and delay the execution of our work, we do not, in our apprehenſion, relinquiſh the inſertion of any materials eſſentially neceſſary to the conduct and effect of the inquiry. Whatever inſight into the ſubject of fees, with a view to illuſtrate truth, and juſtify concluſion, could be given by the production of all the returns made for the out-ports and

creeks

creeks (together one hundred and four), may, to very sufficient purpose, be communicated by those we have chosen.

"In making this selection we were governed by an obvious principle. The ports for which tables have been established, pursuant to the order of the house of commons, involve in themselves as head ports, or through their dependant members, the principal places of foreign commerce in the kingdom. Accordingly we found combined in them two requisites, which to us appeared decisive as to this matter of choice—one, that of their being the only ports which have a parliamentary sanction and rule for fees—the other, their possessing that degree of mercantile importance, and consequent extent of custom business, which must of necessity render them subject to the proportionally greater influence of the species of payment under discussion.

"We have adopted the following method in stating the returns respecting fees for these eight ports, and their dependencies. We have inserted—1st, the table of fees and allowances authorized and signed by virtue of the order of the house of commons—2d, The account of the fees usually taken at the head port—3d, The accounts of the fees usually taken at the several members and creeks (if any) dependant upon the head port, entering the members in alphabetical order, and the creeks immediately after the port of which they are respectively a part. These various accounts, as constituting together, in the present view, a distinct subject of inquiry holding to each head-port, we have included in one number under the head-port.

"The eight head ports (which we have likewise taken alphabetically), Bristol, Chester, Hull, Ipswich, Milford, Poole, Sandwich, Yarmouth, comprehend in the dependencies twenty two members and sixteen creeks.

"The officers, in their returns having used indiscriminately the title of port, we have prefixed to each account the proper denomination, according to the list received from the office of the customs.

"From an examination and comparison of these documents, it may be seen how far the parliamentary tables do in fact operate as rules or standards for the fees received by the officers at the head port, and at the dependant members and creeks for which such tables were severally appointed; and how far, from the description of the business and the officers contained therein, they are capable of application to the commercial and official transactions of this time. From the same examination it will also appear, in what degree the fee taken at the head-port on the ground of usage, corresponds with that taken at the dependencies thereupon; and, where there are different members and creeks dependant upon the same head-port what similitude, as to the payment by fee, obtains throughout their transactions.

"Though, from the motive above explained, we have bounded ourselves in annexing to our report the accounts of fees, we did not fail to investigate generally those returns. The opinion which we have formed in consequence of that investigation will hereafter be stated.

"The gratuity or recompence received by the officers of the customs, under the authority of parliament, is taken pursuant to the 6th and 7th of William the Third, chapter the 7th; which is regarded as the only legal sanction for that species

ſpecies of emolument. It is there enacted, that, for the accommodation of trade upon urgent occaſions, the officer may be permitted to work at times and places not required by law; and that it may be lawful for the officer, duly employed in the execution of his office, on any extraordinary ſervice not required by law, to receive ſuch recompence from the merchants or other perſons requiring his attendance, as the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in the port of London, and the collector, cuſtomer, and controller in the out-ports, or any two of them reſpectively (by whom the ſufferance is thought requiſite to be granted), ſhall determine.—The characteriſtic diſtinction between the fee and the gratuity, as authorized by the legiſlature, is hence apparent.

"The fee is a payment to the officer for the execution of his employment at legal times and places: The gratuity, a compenſation for extra attendance; that is, for work done at times or places not legally required of him. In the caſe of the former, the buſineſs to be tranſacted, the ſum to be paid, the officer or officers to receive, and, in moſt caſes, the diviſion of that ſum, if it is to be divided, are ſpecified and fixed. In that of the latter, a certain ſpecies of reward, for a peculiar deſcription of duty, is ſanctioned; but the ſervice to be performed, the quantum of recompence to be made, and the officer or officers entitled, are left indefinite, and not particularized. A general right to the officer of taking compenſation for extraordinary duty is eſtabliſhed, and that allowance qualified and guarded, by referring the degree of the reward to the diſcretion of the official authority whence the permiſſion to execute the ſervice was, according to the proper form, obtained.

"That the gratuity thus defined might be underſtood, it became neceſſary to know what are the times and places not required by law. This information we received from William Stiles, eſq.

"The times not required by law, are either thoſe out of the hours preſcribed for official attendance by the rules annexed to the book of rates, or holidays.—The places not required by law, are all thoſe not being legal quays.

The hours of buſineſs are ſettled thus by the 18th and 13th of thoſe rules:—"The officers who ſit above in the cuſtomhouſe of the port of London, ſhall attend the ſervice of their ſeveral places from nine to twelve of the clock in the forenoon; and one officer, or one able clerk, ſhall attend with the book in the afternoon, during ſuch time as the officers are appointed to wait at the water ſide, for the better deciding of all controverſies that may happen concerning merchants warrants: all other the officers of the out-ports ſhall attend every day in the cuſtom houſe of every reſpective port, for diſpatch of merchants and ſhippers, between the hours of nine of the clock and twelve in the morning, and two and four of the clock in the afternoon.

"The merchants trading into the port of London have free liberty to lade and unlade their goods at any of the lawful quays, and places of ſhipping and landing of goods, between the Tower of London and London-bridge; and between ſun-riſing and ſun-ſetting, from the tenth day of September to the tenth day of March; and between the hours of ſix of the clock in the morning and ſix of the clock in the evening

evening, from the tenth day of March to the tenth day of September, giving notice thereof to the reſpective officers appointed to attend the lading and unlading of goods."

"This laſt rule is confined to the port of London; and we do not find in theſe rules any notice taken of the hours of attendance of the water ſide officers at the out-ports; but we learn, that, in practice, the attendance of thoſe officers is ſimilar to what prevails among the ſame deſcription of officers in the port of London.

"The holidays annually kept in the cuſtoms are, as we learn from a liſt returned purſuant to our requiſition, forty-five in number. Thirty one of them are eſtabliſhed by the following acts; the 5th and 6th of Edward the Sixth, chapter the 3d; the 3d of James the Firſt, chapter the 1ſt; the 12th of Charles the Second, chapters the 14th and 30th; and the 19th of Charles the Second, chapter the 3d. The remaining fourteen are cuſtomary; and the original authority for their obſervance could not be given us in the information we received. It was ſtated that they do not appear to be founded upon any ſpecific acts of parliament. Thirty-eight of theſe holidays are regular, and fixed to certain days of the month; ſeven fluctuate, being determined by the days on which they reſpectively happen to fall in the courſe of the year. Moſt of the holidays, if occurring upon a Sunday, are not kept; ſome are.

"The legal quays are thoſe which have been ſet out and appointed by commiſſions iſſued from the court of exchequer; and the buſineſs tranſacted off theſe quays, or, as it is termed, at illegal places, is done under the authority of a ſpecial ſufferance made out by the proper officers in the long room, and ſigned by one commiſſioner in the port of London; and granted and ſigned by the collector and controller, at an out port. The execution of ſuch ſervice is committed to a claſs of officers called water ſide officers.

"The recompences made to the officers for their attendance at hours upon days, and at places as above deſcribed, that is, ſuch as do not come within the courſe of the duty regularly and legally exacted of them, conſtitute that ſpecies of payment denominated recompence or gratuity, and provided for by the act of William the Third.

"Having traced the fee and gratuity received by the officers of the cuſtoms through this detail of authority and practice, we directed our attention to another circumſtance connected with the ſubject, and of importance ſufficient to claim much regard—We mean, the kind of notice or information held forth to the merchant, or other perſons intereſted, of the exact and ſpecific ſum to be paid to the officer, for any and every ſervice which they may have occaſion to require of him, in the tranſactions they are obliged to carry on with the office of the cuſtoms.

"Upon conſulting the journals of the houſe of commons, we find that on the 28th day of January 1715-16, it was reſolved (*nemine contradicente*), "That an humble addreſs be preſented to his majeſty, that he will be graciouſly pleaſed to give the ſtricteſt orders to all perſons, in all offices whatſoever, claiming or taking any fees upon account of their offices, to ſet up, in ſome public place of the ſaid office (to which every body may have acceſs), an exact table of all fees due to them, or demanded or taken by them;

m; and that no perſon what-
r ſhall take any more than their
ient, juſt, and legal fees, upon
n of being proſecuted with the ut-
ſt ſeverity."

" The pleaſure of the crown, upon
above addreſs, having been com-
nicated by the lords commiſſion-
of his majeſty's treaſury to the
mmiſſioners of the cuſtoms, a
nted inſtrument, dated Auguſt
e 10th, 1716, was iſſued by the
mmiſſioners of the cuſtoms,
herein it is ordered, " That in
ery office, where ancient, juſt,
d legal fees are due, demanded,
taken, an exact table thereof be
thwith written, in a fair legible
aracter, to be ſigned by the pro-
r officer or officers, and affixed in
e moſt convenient place in ſuch
ice, that merchants and others
ncerned may eaſily inſpect the
me." The order alſo preſcribes a
le or explanation to be prefixed to
ch table, declaring that the table
ntains all fees demanded or taken
the office; and that no fee, re-
ard, or gratuity, other than ſo
ecified, can be legally taken or
manded, except a moderate re-
mpence for extraordinary ſervice,
rſuant to the 6th and 7th of Wil-
am the Third, chapter the 7th.
is farther ordered, That in every
ffice where no fee is due, a paper
ntaining a declaration thereof, be,
like manner, ſet up for public
iew; and the form of that declara-
on is ſpecified.

" Theſe general orders of Au-
uſt the 10th, 1716, were enforced
y a reſolution of the board of cuſ-
oms, dated April the 12th, 1776,
hereby they are to be reprinted, to
e ſet up publicly in the offices at
ll the ports, and the officers are
ommanded to act in ſtrict conform-
y thereto.

" That we might learn whether obſervance was had of theſe orders, and in a mode calculated to effect the end propoſed, we required " A liſt of the out-ports and creeks, in the office of the cuſtoms, where tables of fees, taken by the officers at ſuch reſpective ports and creeks, are hung up in any place or office thereunto belonging; and diſtinguiſhing whether theſe tables conſiſt of the fees authorized by any act of parliament, or of all fees uſually taken." The return to our precept, and the examination of Mr. John Dalley, afforded that information.

" In this liſt all the out-ports belonging to the cuſtoms are entered, and thoſe which have no tables of fees affixed are diſtinguiſhed; but of the creeks thoſe only are inſerted where tables are ſet up. It thence appears, that the ſeventy-two head or member ports (Leigh inclusive) have all, three excepted, tables affixed; and that of the creeks, thirty-two in number, eleven have them alſo affixed.

" In regard to the contents of theſe tables, we collect the following particulars.

" The fees, which the tables ſeverally affixed contain, are, with few exceptions, confined to thoſe taken by the patent officers; but at no port, except at the one of Briſtol, do we find that the whole of the fees taken by that claſs of officers are included, and rarely are the fees to their deputies at all enumerated. At all the ports for which tables were framed or authorized by the order of the houſe of commons, thoſe tables are affixed, and at ſome of them, tables of fees of uſage are ſo likewiſe; but neither at the ports of that deſcription, nor at the ports where the fees taken by the officers ſtand wholly upon the ground of uſage, are all the fees paid at the port to be found in the table or tables hung up: in general

general, a conſiderable portion of them is not ſet forth; and, in ſome inſtances, the fee ſtated is not the whole of the ſum received for the inſtrument, document, or ſervice ſpecified.

"Upon comparing the tables affixed at the head port, with thoſe at the members and creeks dependant thereupon, the ſum of fee entered as payable at the former, does not always correſpond with that for a ſimilar buſineſs, to the ſame ſpecies of officer, at the latter. The coaſt fees, inſerted in theſe tables, differ very conſiderably at different ports.

"At the out-ports, in like manner as in the port of London, the recompences made by the merchants to the officers, for extraordinary work, are frequently, by agreement or cuſtom, brought to a kind of rate, fixing the ſum for the ſervice required; but the entry thereof in any of theſe tables is very rare.

"As exemplification may render the inquiry we have been proſecuting, and the actual ſtate of the ſubject, more intelligible, we have inſerted in our Appendix, copies of the tables hung up at the ports of Briſtol, Liverpool, Hull, and Yarmouth, ſingled out upon the ſame principle which we have before had occaſion to adopt, the magnitude of the commerce of the port.

"A compariſon of theſe tables, with the tables of fees appointed for thoſe ports by the houſe of commons, and with the liſt of fees returned as uſually taken at them reſpectively, will at once connect and embrace the three objects which form the baſis and ſubſtance of this inveſtigation—that is, the parliamentary authority, the uſage, and the public communication given to the perſon who is to pay, of the ſum to be paid.

"In the port of London, the only tables of fees affixed, are in t offices of ſuch patent officers as included in the table eſtabliſhed the order of the houſe of commo of 1662, and in the office of the cretary. The former conſiſt alo of the fees taken by thoſe pate officers, and not of the fees to th deputies and clerks. The lat comprehends all fees taken in th office, but not the gratuities.

"That clauſe of the general o ders of Auguſt the 10th, 171 which directs, that in every offic where no fee is due, a paper decl ratory thereof ſhall be ſet up f public view, is not carried into ex cution in the port of London; ne from the information we were ab to collect, does it appear to be o ſerved at the out-ports and creeks the cuſtoms; though the courſe our examination produced one i ſtance of a compliance therewit which takes place in the collector office at the port of Liverpool.

"The merchants, and other pe ſons who carry on the commerce the country, being materially a fected by the fee and gratuity pai to the officers of the cuſtoms, an by the circumſtances attending tho payments, we regarded it as a mea ſure, of propriety to conſult the experience, before we formed an final opinion in reſpect to the ſub ject.

"Upon inquiry we learned, tha it is common for merchants to em ploy agents or brokers to paſ through the office of the cuſtom their tranſactions with that revenue and, therefore, as perſons of thi deſcription, by acting occaſionall for merchants of all denominations are in ſituations to acquire a tho rough practical knowledge of every branch of the buſineſs, we though that in having recourſe to them, w ſhould uſe a compendious and ef fectua

ctual method of obtaining the information wanted. With this view examined Mr. Thomas Hubbert, p-broker, and owner of ships; r. William Walter Viney, an ent; and Mr. Thomas Coles, a oker for merchants. The substance of their several examinations ought together (which, it is to be membered, had immediate reference to the port of London), is incipally as follows.

" The fee paid to the officer, for ſineſs done at times or places required by law, is in ſome caſes found be a fixed cuſtomary ſum; in hers, it is not certain, but varyg; and then it is a ſource of freent diſpute, and cauſes vexation d loſs to the merchant. The fee r the ſame tranſaction, to the ſame ficer, has, within memory, in vaous inſtances, been obſerved to inreaſe.

" Perſons converſant in the office the cuſtoms, and knowing the act fee for every ſpecies of ſerce, are, by their experience, uarded againſt the danger of overharge: but ſtrangers, or perſons ot much acquainted therewith (no bles of fees, except in regard to rtain officers, being affixed), do ot appear to have the ſame ſecuri; and many caſes, in which they ave ſuffered thereby, are known to ave occurred.

" In ſome particular parts of the uſineſs, much is left to the diſcreon of the officer: there the variaon of the fee may be prejudicial the revenue.—Diſpatch, more an could be had in the ordinary ourſe, is ſometimes procured by e.—The fee is not proportional the value of the reſpective ſubcts upon which it is paid; and that rcumſtance tends to the diſcougement of commerce.—The recompence to the officer, for work done at times and places not required by law, is, in practice, frequently reduced to a certain ſum; where it is indeterminate, numerous inconveniences may ariſe.

" The hours for the attendance of the officers in the Long-room, as ſettled by the rules annexed to the Book of rates, that is, from nine o'clock to twelve, do not appear to ſuffice. That four hours would be ſufficient for them to attend, is a matter in which opinions concur. From nine to one, or from ten to two o'clock, are ſuggeſted as the moſt convenient arrangement of the hours. The former diſpoſition, it is ſtated, would be preferable in regard to the export trade, as allowing more time for ſhipping goods early, and being a means of preventing the confuſion and bad conſequences occaſioned by late ſhipping.

" It is repreſented, that the punctual attendance of the Long-room officers, at the hour preſcribed by law for the commencement of buſineſs (which is not the preſent uſage, as they are not all conſtantly in their reſpective ſeats till near eleven o'clock), would be advantageous to trade; and that the abſence of the ſearchers from their office, from one o'clock till half paſt three, during which interval the whole export buſineſs is at a ſtand, is productive of great inconvenience.

" The frequent occurrence of holidays, in the department of the cuſtoms, is conſidered as very detrimental to commerce.

" The buſineſs at the waterſide, and on ſhip board, may, with an exception adduced reſpecting the ſearchers, proceed upon holidays, previous permiſſion (which is confined moſtly to periſhable articles and ſpecial caſes) being granted by

the commiſſioners, and a recompence being made to the officers appointed to attend: but the import and export buſineſs, as far as dependant upon the department of the Long-room, wholly ſtops upon a holiday.

"In the Long-room, the ſhip is reported, the entry of the goods inwards and outwards made, the duties computed and paid, the clearance of ſhips outwards perfected, and moſt of the formalities eſſential to the making out and paſſing debentures, ſo as to complete them for payment, conducted. Theſe are ſome of the principal and moſt important tranſactions which concern the merchant in the office of the cuſtoms; and interruptions in the courſe of them are extremely injurious.

"The force of ſuch evils is greatly augmented when holidays happen to fall upon ſucceeding days, or recur nearly to each other, eſpecially if at periods when the bulk of the commerce, either in fleets or by ſingle ſhips, is arriving or departing. The cargo of the ſhip, and the object of the voyage, may be very materially affected by the delay ariſing from holidays.

"There are different parts of the cuſtom buſineſs where the exciſe office has an interference, and the preſence of the exciſe officer is neceſſary. The holidays in this latter department occurring (as it is ſtated) oftener than thoſe obſerved in the former, the tranſactions of the cuſtoms are in ſuch caſes impeded.

"The frequency of holidays may be very detrimental to the revenue, as well as the merchant, by extending the time limited by law for the ſhip to report, after ſhe has paſſed Graveſend, and by occaſioning delay in loading or unloading of ſhips: whence greater opportunities for licit practices are afforded.

"Having purſued theſe inqu ries to the extent which we dee may ſuffice, we proceed to ful the remaining part of the duty e joined us by the legiſlature—Th of reporting ſuch matter of obſer ation and regulation as has ariſen o of them, and may, in our judgmer be the moſt effectual means of re dering our labours beneficial to t public.

"From the nature, compa and variety of the objects compr hended in, or connected with, t office which we have had under i veſtigation, we found it neceſſary conduct our reſearches upon viev large and general.

"Had we not eſtabliſhed th principle of guid..ce and boundar we might well have been led into field of detail inconſiſtent with t term, and unſuitable to the purpor of our inſtitution.

"Our aim has been to eſtabli upon good foundation, the ma and predominant parts of the ſy tem; truſting, that if they be we arranged, and ſoundly conſtitute it will not be a matter of difficult or beyond the ordinary powers the office itſelf, to regulate, co formably, thoſe which ſtand in ſubordinate place.

"In proſecuting our work th directed, there are two ends whic we regard as ſupreme, and to the ac compliſhment of which we have un remittingly bent our attention.

"1ſt, The reduction of the ex pence to the public for th management of this revenue.

"2d. The introduction of a mor ſimple, regular, and accord ant ſyſtem into the interna frame of the office.

"Some of the ſuggeſtions we ſha off

ffer are confined to the out-ports of he cuſtoms; the more immediate ubject of this Report; others em-race, indiſcriminately, the whole f the department.

"Duties or taxes levied upon the ubject ſhould vigilantly and religi-uſly be guarded from all unneceſ-ary diminution in paſſing to their inal object, the ſervice of the ſtate. The public have a right to a full quivalent for every charge incur-ed, or payment made, upon public ccount; and, conſequently, no fficer or agent whatever ought to e tolerated, who does not earn, by n adequate return, the ſtipend he eceives. Theſe truths, in their na-ure ſacred and incontrovertible, endered here, if capable of being o, more forcible by the actual ne-eſſities of this country, apply in reat ſtrength to a conſiderable claſs f the officers of the cuſtoms be-onging to the out-ports.—The pa-ent officers are alluded to.

"It has been ſtated in the early art of this Report, that the diſtin-uiſhing character of an out-port epends materially upon the juriſ-iction of the three patent officers, he cuſtomer, the controller, and earcher. How far thoſe officers, xty-three in number, did any way ontribute to the conduct or ad-antage of this revenue in the year 784, and therefore what benefit ecrued back to the public for the noluments conferred upon them, apparent from the account re-rned purſuant to our requiſition. en only of theſe officers diſ-harged themſelves the duties of eir ſeveral employments in that year.

"So many offices converted into ecures, and that in a depart-ent, from the extent of tranſac-on and load of expence inſepar-le from it, little adapted to main-tain idle and unprofitable members, appeared to us to be a burthen upon the revenue, and a loſs to the pub-lic, demanding ſpeedy and effectual remedy.

"That we might be able to judge whether there exiſted any ground of neceſſity or expedience for farther ſubmiſſion to this evil, or in what mode and degree relief might ſafely be applied, it became neceſſary for us to acquire ſome general know-ledge of the origin and conſtituent qualities of theſe offices. William Stiles, eſquire ſupplied us with that information.

"The cuſtomer, the controller, and the ſearcher, were the three officers of the crown by whom the buſineſs of the cuſtoms anciently, and from the riſe thereof, was con-ducted.

"The cuſtomer (ſtyled alſo in the old acts of parliament collector, and ſtill ſo in his patent) was the principal officer for carrying on and ſuperintending the tranſactions ap-pertaining to this revenue. He col-lected the cuſtom duties, paid them into the exchequer, accounted for them upon oath, and yielded acounts to the exchequer relative to all the foreign and coaſt commerce of the realm.

"The office of controller was co-eval with the one of cuſtomer. His province was to attend, check, and control this laſt officer in the exe-cution of every part of the ſervice entruſted to his care.

"The ſearcher, who was the third ancient officer, had, at his inſtitution, the duty aſſigned him of ſearching and examining all goods and merchandiſe, whether im-ported into, or exported from, the country.

"When the cuſtoms were put in farm, the farmers employed their

own officers in the collection of the duties. The cuſtomer, thus relieved of that branch of his former duty, remained, as is apprehended, for the purpoſe of yielding the accounts above mentioned into the exchequer, and likewiſe for that of conducting the coaſt buſineſs; in which the farmers, there being at that time no coaſt duties, had not any concern.

"In the year 1671, the cuſtoms underwent a material change, that of their being placed under the management and direction of commiſſioners; the form in which the office now ſubſiſts. At this period, the collector, originally the officer of the farmer, was adopted and conſtituted an officer of the crown; and, accordingly, collectors were, purſuant to treaſury warrants, appointed by the board of cuſtoms at all the ports, as the terms for which the ſeveral farms had been granted reſpectively expired. To the collector, an office by this means gradually introduced and extended over the whole department, was committed the truſt of receiving all the cuſtom duties, of remitting them to the receiver general, and accounting for them with the controller general; and likewiſe, in conjunction with his controller, the general conduct and ſuperintendance of the whole buſineſs of this revenue at his reſpective port.

"The office of cuſtomer was, however, preſerved, and has been ſuffered to continue to this day. The principal duty left to that officer at preſent, regards the coaſt buſineſs; the documents and inſtruments relative to which he generally makes out, and always ſigns. The return of quarter books to the office of the cuſtoms, and the tranſmiſſion of port books and of the coaſt bonds to the exchequer, are alſo branches of his employment ſtill remaining.

"In reſpect to the coaſt tranſactions at an out-port, however in form they may originate with the cuſtomer, and be carried on by him jointly with the controller, yet the collector, by examination, ſignature, or whatever may be the official act or formality, bears his ſhare alſo in the conduct of the buſineſs, and is held, equally with thoſe two officers, to partake in all reſponſibility annexed.

"What returns were made to the cuſtoms from the offices of cuſtomer at the out-ports, in the year 1784, we were made acquainted with by two accounts tranſmitted purſuant to our precepts—the one, "An account of the names of the patent cuſtomers and patent controllers at the ſeveral out-ports, who made returns to the ſurveyor of the out-ports in the year 1784; and of thoſe out-ports from whence no ſuch returns were made either by the patent or deputy cuſtomer"—the other, "A liſt of the deputy cuſtomers at the ſeveral out-ports, who made returns to the ſurveyor of the out-ports in the year 1784; diſtinguiſhing thoſe who are collectors." The uſe of thoſe returns when made, we learned from the examination of Mr. Edward Dew the deputy ſurveyor of the out ports.

"Two patent cuſtomers alone returned quarter books into the office in the year 1784. From thirty-ſix ports no returns were made, either by the patent or deputy cuſtomer. At many ports the collectors are the deputy cuſtomers; and if quarter books are tranſmitted by them in both capacities, they are but duplicates or tranſcripts of the ſame account. Thirty-five deputy cuſtomers made returns in this year, an

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that number twenty-eight were ſo collectors at their reſpective orts.

" The material fact, the efficacy application of thoſe accounts, if ceived, proved to be thus :—The uarter books ſent up, either by e patent or deputy cuſtomers, aim no kind of attention. The rveyor of the out-ports, relying pon thoſe of the patent or deputy ntrollers, which are returned uarterly from every port by the ficer who acts in that office, heeds ot the quarter books ſent up from e office of the cuſtomer. Theſe ſt, deemed of no import or utility, ithout regard, without examina- on, are tied up, laid aſide, and epoſited in the office.

" The obſervance yielded by the atent officers at the out-ports to e orders of the 7th of queen Eli- abeth, for the return of the port ooks into the exchequer, we found our laſt Report, by the examina- on of Mr. Edward Taylor, and e account we required of the ing's remembrancer, to be equally efective, irregular, and uncertain ; nd the returns alike diſregarded, nd unproductive of benefit. The bove books and accounts, there- ore, when returned by the cuſtom- r, and whether into the office of he cuſtoms, or into the court of xchequer, ſeem to us to anſwer no ther end than that of inconve- iently augmenting the number of ſeleſs and neglected records, to the vident waſte of official time, labour, nd pay.

" The coaſt bonds muſt, at the ime of their being taken by the uſtomer, be approved of by the ollector and controller ; and the pprobation of that officer, and of he controller, is to be ſignified by heir being both witneſſes thereto. Theſe bonds, either certified or uncertified, are to be returned into the exchequer at certain periods ; and a liſt of them is at the ſame time to be ſent up, which it is the duty of the collector to examine and ſign, as well as the patent officers ; and ſimilar liſts, in like manner examined and ſigned, are to be tranſmitted, one to the board of cuſtoms the other to the ſolicitor for coaſt bonds. The whole of this ſervice may, it is plain, reſt with the collector and controller, and the interference of the cuſtomer therein be relinquiſhed.

" The examination of Mr. Anthony Palmer Collings, deputy cuſtomer outwards at the port of Briſtol, afforded us the means of obſerving the utility of the office of cuſtomer, at a port where that officer takes as material a concern in the conduct of this revenue as is likely in any inſtance to occur. But in that detail we find no ſolid and weighty reaſon for the preſervation, or impediment to the diſcontinuance, of the office of cuſtomer. Some few parts of the coaſt tranſactions excepted, the collector participates eſſentially in all the buſineſs executed by the cuſtomer at that port. The branches now peculiarly allotted to this laſt officer, in excluſion of the former, may with facility, and ought in propriety, to be tranſlated to the department of the collector : his execution or ſuperintendance of the cuſtom buſineſs at the out-ports ſhould be rendered univerſal, and not be thus broken in upon by the interference of the cuſtomer, in uſeleſs repetition, of a duty performed by, or to a deprivation of that buſineſs which ought to belong to the collector.

" If at the port of Briſtol, or any other port, from the extraordinary quantity of coaſt buſineſs,

this transfer may throw too great a load upon the collector, assistance in those instances, which, if occurring must be rare, may be provided, for the purpose of conducting, in his office, that branch of duty.

"From this inquiry we think ourselves warranted in an opinion, that, however in very remote and early times the officer of customer might have been necessary or beneficial to the revenue of the customs, no such plea for the continuance of that office can be adduced at this day. It is wholly useless—ought, in consistency, to have been suppressed upon the change introduced into the customs, by the appointment of collectors, subsequent to the year 1671—and has been permitted to exist too long by above a century.

"The office of controller does not stand in a predicament any way analogous. The original duty of the controller was, to be a constant check and control upon the customer; and, as far as any service remains to this officer, he is so still: but the collector having been constituted, at every out-port, the principal officer, and invested with the trust of executing the most essential branches, and superintending the whole of the custom business, it became necessary to extend the duty of the controller, so as to render the really active officer the object of it. Accordingly, to the controller, upon his appointment, if he acts, if not, to his deputy, there is, by order of the board of customs, transmitted a copy of the collector's instructions; and that is the method used of making known to this officer his official duty.

"The controller, the second officer in rank at the port, is to have knowledge of, concern in, and joint responsibility for the execution of every part and branch of the duty committed to the collector, consequently th the office of controller is essential but it no way conduces to the goo of this revenue, and is utterly repug nant to the maxims we have adopte as just and wholesome by the public that this office should, in most in stances, consist of two componen parts, the one a sinecure, unacquaint ed with, interfering not in, having n solicitude about, the duty, but reap ing by far the greater portion o the emolument; the other a substitut deputed by the principal to sustai the labour and conduct, and to pro duce all the effects of the office, up on an allotment of provision compa ratively bare and scanty. While therefore, we see the necessity of pre serving the office of controller, w judge the abolition of the fruitle part thereof to be a regulation expe dient and indispensable.—The offic of patent controller in the out-port should, in our opinion, be suppres ed.

"The office of searcher is, lik that of controller, important and ne cessary. The duty annexed to thi office has undergone a materia change since its first institution. B the appointment of separate and dis tinct classes of officers to conduct th inward service, the searcher, has bee relieved of one division of the busi ness which anciently appertained t him, and exports alone form the ob ject of his present duty.

"The great outline of that dut is, to search and examine all good and merchandize exported; to com pare the description and particular of the articles with the endorsement made by the exporter in his cocket to see that they are exact and corre spondent, and that the quantity, qua lity, number, weight, or whatever may be the material requisities, are truly and accurately expressed Where goods so exported are of a

specie

ecies entitled to bounty or draw
ck, it is upon the certificate of this
icer, teſtifying thoſe ſpecific cir-
mſtances of the article which give
e rule for aſcertaining the quantum
payment due to the exporter, that
e bounty or drawback is by law
yable—A truſt viſibly pregnant
th the moſt important conſequen-
to the country, when the heavy
nual ſum paid or drawnback out of
s revenue, and the frauds and evil
actices to which theſe ſpecies of
nfactions are ſubject, are duly re-
ted upon. The office of ſearcher,
erefore, it is requiſite ſhould re-
in; but, labouring, for the moſt
rt, under a ſimilar defect with that
ich obtains in the office of control-
, namely, a principal who does not
, and ſerves but to burthen the
enue, it demands a ſimilar reme-
, the diſcontinuance of that uſe-
s and expenſive member, and the
nflation of the appointment and
ſt to an efficient officer, conduct-
g the whole of the buſineſs, re-
ving all the emolument derived
m the employment.—The office
patent ſearcher in the out-ports,
ould likewiſe, in our opinion, be
continued.

"That it may appear what charge
entailed upon the public for main-
ning officers, whom we have upon
hat we deem ſolid and indiſputable
ound, judged unneceſſary, and
hat ſaving will accrue from their
olition, we have extracted from
e account of the emoluments of
e out-port officers, the ſums which
e patent cuſtomers, controllers, and
rchers, received of the crown and
bject in the year 1784; and alſo
e payments back to the public in
es, by theſe officers reſpectively,
that year: but the regulation pro-
ſed in reſpect to theſe three offices,
ing of two kinds, diſtinct in ten-
ncy and degree, we have arranged
the officers in two claſſes, conform-
able to that diſtinction.

"The firſt comprehends the office
of cuſtomer, where it is expedient
the whole office ſhould be ſuppreſſ-
ed; and, therefore, in that ſtatement
we have alſo included, as a charge
which will terminate with the office,
the emoluments received by the ſe-
veral deputies of the cuſtomers, wher-
ever conſiſting of ſalaries from the
crown, or of payments by the ſub-
ject.

"The ſecond claſs contains the
patent controllers and patent ſearch-
ers; and the emoluments to their
deputies are omitted, becauſe the re-
gulation reaches no farther than the
ſinecure branch of each office; the
uſeful part thereof muſt be preſerved,
and the expence of a proper ſupport
for the execution of theſe offices,
however modelled, will remain upon
the public. In this claſs are alſo
inſerted the four patent king's wait-
ers at the port of Briſtol, as being
officers who do not act, but execute
their offices by deputy.

"We have not been inattentive
to this circumſtance, that in the re-
turn there are ten patent officers who
did not employ deputies, but diſ-
charged themſelves ſolely the duties
of their offices at their reſpective
head ports. Two of them being
cuſtomers, are entered in the firſt
claſs, becauſe every charge occaſion-
ed by that office muſt end with it.
The remaining eight, either control-
lers or ſearchers, are not placed in
the ſecond claſs, for this reaſon, that
in any mode of arrangement, pro-
viſion for the diſcharge of that duty
muſt be made.

"The office of cuſtomer at the out-
ports, in the year 1784, coſt the
crown, in ſalaries and allowances to
principals and deputies, 1,351*l.* 3*s.*
10*d.*; the ſubject, in the payment of
of fees and gratitudes, 13,236*l.* 17*s.*
7*d.*;

7d.; together, 14,588l. 1s. 5d. The sum paid by these officers in taxes was 351l. 5s. 8d. The net charge upon the public was 14,236l. 15s. 9d.

"The salaries to the patent controllers and searchers, who did not act, and to the four patent king's waiters at the port of Bristol, amounted to 655l. 15s. 2d. the fees and gratuities received by them, to 8,434l. 5s. 2d. together, 9090l. —4d. They paid back in taxes 210l. 7s. 11½d. The net charge they occasioned to the public was 8,879l. 12s. 4½d.

"The total payment by the crown to these several officers, in the year 1784, was 2,006l. 19s.—. by the subject, 21,671l. 2s. 9d. together 23,678l. 1s. 9d. the amount of taxes, 561l. 13s. 7½d which, deducted from 23,678l. 1s. 9d. leaves 23,116l. 8s. 1½d. the real charge induced by them upon the public.

"The light in which we have hitherto considered the existence and state of the patent offices of the customs at the out-ports, and in subservience to which we have recommended their abolition, has been one purely œconomical: but impressed as we are with a sense of the cogent necessity of introducing all practicable frugality into the administration of the finances of this kingdom, there is still another species of benefit connected with the above reform, not less entitled, in our judgment, to estimation.

"An appointment to a patent office at an out-port, it has been shewn, conveys an official jurisdiction to that officer, in respect of his office, over all the members and creeks dependant upon the head port, as well as over the head port itself.

"By the ancient acts of parliament the customers, controllers, and searchers were to be continually resident and abiding upon their offices. In those days the ports might be few in number, and confined to head ports and thence an obedience to these injunctions, in their fullest sense, might have been practicable. At present the head ports are twenty; and the member ports and creeks, together eighty-four. Should there be a disposition on the part of the patent officers to act themselves (which does not appear to be the fact in the year 1784), their execution of their duty must bear a very limited proportion to the extent of their offices.

"As the system now stands, the officers appoint their deputies at all the ports and creeks under their respective jurisdiction; and it is in virtue of such appointment that the several offices are holden, and the business transacted. Upon the death, resignation, or removal of a patent officer, none of his deputies appear to be regularly and legally authorized to act, until a successor be appointed and unless re-appointed by him. Upon the death, resignation, or removal of a deputy, no appointment of a successor can, according to the regular and legal form, take place but by a deputation from the patentee.

"A dominion of this kind, vested in any officer belonging to an office such as the customs, and in an office seldom bearing any share in, ignorant of, and unconcerned about, the duties of his office; generally residing at a distance from it; possibly absent from the kingdom; seemed to us to offend against all good order and sound principle; to make the office subordinate to the officer; and to lead to consequences mischievous to the revenue and dangerous for the public. Upon inquiry, it proved that these evils did not rest in possibility or apprehension: very recent and striking instances of their existence were produced to us.

"In the year 1784, the deputy controller at the port of Liverpool died. The patent controller

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heſter, the head port, of which Liverpool is a member, was then in the aſt Indies; and, conſequently, an ppointment by him of a deputy muſt ave been a work of conſiderable me. This was repreſented, by the oard of cuſtoms, in a memorial to he lords commiſſioners of his majeſy's treaſury; who, to prevent this nportant office from remaining vaant, did, by their warrant to the ommiſſioners of the cuſtoms, dated he 8th day of January 1785, authoize and require them to depute a perſon, therein, named, to be deputy ontroller at the port of Liverpool, pon his giving ſecurity to the crown n the like ſum as was given by his predeceſſor in office: but the bond of the late deputy to his principal was ot to be found; no entry of ſuch onds being made in the office, the penalty could not be aſcertained; he appointment was delayed; and at length the board of cuſtoms were obliged to ſettle the quantum of penalty, upon the information of an officer at the port, of what was the ſecurity given by the late deputy. Another inconvenience attended this tranſaction: the patentee has always been conſidered as reſponſible for his deputy; but in this inſtance the deputy was not appointed by him, nor with his knowledge or intervention. A ſimilar tranſaction has ſince happened in conſequence of the death of the deputy controller of the port of Lancaſter, which is another member of the head port of Cheſter.

"The office of ſearcher at the port of Shoreham we found had been vacant for near three years; owing as was apprehended, to the allowance made by the patentee to his deputy being ſo ſmall, that no perſon proper for the office thought it worth acceptance. The ſignature of the ſearcher is eſſential to various documents and inſtruments in the courſe of the cuſtom buſineſs; and that formality is by law requiſite to authorize the payment of debentures: from the want thereof, ſeveral debentures, tranſmitted to be paid in London, becauſe the collector at the port had not ſufficient money in his hands, were ſtopped in the office of the ſecretary for ſome months; and the exporter had not, while we were engaged in that part of our inquiry, been yet able to procure them to be paid, owing the above circumſtance.

"Occurrences like theſe, in a department upon the tranſactions of which the concerns both of revenue and commerce materially depend, are ſerious miſchiefs, and radically to be provided againſt. The ſyſtem of buſineſs in this office ought not to be within the reach of ſuch evils: it ſhould proceed in a fixed and regular courſe, ſecured from interruption. The accidental preſence or abſence, the private arrangement, or œconomical convenience of an officer ſhould have no power to ſuſpend or diſturb the movements of ſuch an office.

"The detriment ariſing from this right of appointment in the patent officers does not ſtop here. It is of infinite moment to this revenue that none but perſons well and duly qualified ſhould be entruſted with the execution of duties as important as thoſe of the controller and ſearcher. A matter of this conſequence does not ſeem ſufficiently guarded, while the power of appointing to theſe offices veſts with the patent officers; it is not to be preſumed that the welfare of the revenue will operate with them as a chief motive in that act. The emoluments they allow their deputies are in general very ſmall. Many of their deputies are engaged in other official ſituations. Inſtances are not waning; of the ſame perſon, at the ſame port, being a deputy to two, or even to three

three patent officers; and thus holding offices in their natures opposed to, and incompatible with, each other. The board of customs have no interference, discretion, or authority, in these appointments. The board of treasury have only, in certain instances, a reservation of approval. There is not, we think, in this system of appointment, precaution provided equal to the trust reposed, and the consequences involved.

From the combined considerations of œconomy, order, and expedience, we are clearly and firmly of opinion, that the constitution of the out-ports of the customs, as far as regards the three patent officers, the customer, controller, and searchers, ought to submit to a complete change. The office of customer should be wholly at an end. The offices of controller, and searcher as patent ones, should be so likwise.

"The controllers and searchers should be officers holding their employments exactly by the same authority that the collector does his office at present; the warrant of the treasury and commission of the board of customs. The department will, by these regulations, be relieved of offices not merely superfluous and expensive, but inconvenient and adverse to the good arrangement and orderly conduct of this revenue.

Whilst we state who has appeared to us defective upon the subject of these patent offices of the customs in the out-ports, and capable of remedy, we are not unmindful of the authority by which they are holden, nor of the interests vested in them. In the discharge of our duty, we propose an official reform, as we judge, very important.—Our province goes no farther. How that reform may, most consistently with wisdom and justice, be carried into effect, is a matter for the determination of the legislature.

Should these offices be abolished the distinction of the out-ports, into head and member, as far as it depends upon the patent officers, will of consequence cease; and at creeks where their deputies are now stationed, a new provision of officers, as substitutes for them, must be made. It is necessary that there should be officers at these creeks, both for the purpose of conducting the coast business, and establishing a proper preventive against illicit practices. This end may, we should think, be fully accomplished by the appointment of two officers to every such creek, holding their offices by the ordinary form of the commission of the board of customs, and invested with authority to carry on the business at present executed by the deputies to the patent officers.

"A reduction not inconsiderable, of the offices of the customs, will follow from this plan. In the year 1784, the patent officers at the out-ports, and their deputies (and some offices were then vacant), amounted together to three hundred and sixty-five.

"The office of customer suppressed, and those of controller and searcher vested only in acting officers, the number necessary to execute these two last offices, at the seventy-two ports, will be one hundred and forty-four; and of those required at the thirty-two creeks, in lieu of the deputies to the patentees, sixty-four; together, two hundred and eight. The diminution of officers, therefore, as compared with those employed in fulfilling these duties in the year 1784, will be one hundred and fifty-seven.

"What we have hitherto suggested will, we trust, tend to perfect the method of conducting this revenue at the out-ports: but there is a farther regulation, in our opinion, indispensably essential to the attain-

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ent of that object.—It regards the llector, the ſupreme officer at eve- out-port. Enough has been ſtat- to demonſtrate the importance his duty: in order to give at ce a full impreſſion thereof, we bjoin a copy of his inſtructions. It ould ſeem that great caution ought precede the delegation of this uſt; and yet, as we learn from the xaminations of William Stiles eſq. arcely any is interpoſed. No offi- al knowledge or experience is re- uired. Perſons utter ſtrangers to e office, and the buſineſs of the uſtoms, have been frequently ap- ointed to this employment.

"The ſearcher, and many other fficers, are, upon being nominated, ut under inſtructions for a certain me, and after the expiration of at period, not admitted to diſ- harge the duties of their ſtations, ntil they produce a certificate from e proper officers, of their being uly qualified. The collector en- rs upon his office without any ſuch reparation. There is, that we can nd, but one diſqualification for is appointment, the having been the ſervice and diſmiſſed; and but ne requiſite, that of giving ſecuri- , by bond, to a certain amount. Here there ſeems to be urgent need f ſome reform; and that reform ught, upon preciſely the ſame round, to be extended to the con- oller, the officer next in rank and onſequence.

"We think that a courſe of gra- ual riſe to the office of controller t an out-port, and from that to the ne of collector, to be forfeited alone y miſconduct or incapacity on the art of the officer who, upon a va- ancy, ſhould ſtand entitled in the rder of ſucceſſion; commencing at, nd paſſing through ſuch intermedi- te official ſtations as might beſt ſuit he practical œconomy of the depart- ment, is the obvious remedy for the defect adverted to, and would be a regulation highly beneficial. Such a ſyſtem would ſecure to theſe two important offices, proved ability and fidelity: the revenue would be fitly managed; and the ſubordinate offi- cer, having before his view a reward certain, if merited, would have the ſtrongeſt motives to make himſelf maſter of his duty, and to execute it with zeal for the ſervice.

We have, in the preceding part of this Report, ſtated the material facts relative to the fees taken by the offi- cers of the cuſtoms at the out-ports. That ſpecies of payment appears, in very ancient times, to have been ſubject to abuſe, and to have requir- ed the interpoſition of high autho- rity. The fourth of Henry the Fourth, chapter the 21ſt, enacts, "That from henceforth they [the ſearchers] take of no maſters of ſhips for their office of ſearching, any ſilver, or money, for their wel- come and farewell, nor any other thing for the ſame, as it hath been taken and received before this time, otherwiſe than ſhall be ordained to them for their office by our lord the king."

"Upon conſulting the journals of the houſe of commons, we find, that at many intervals between the years, 1557 and 1626, bills were introduced into, or revived in the two houſes of parliament, for the expreſs object of avoiding the extor- tions and exactions of cuſtomers, controllers, ſearchers, and other offi- cers or perſons employed in the cuſ- toms. Theſe ſeveral bills none of them arrived at completion, but were repeatedly loſt in ſome ſtage of their progreſs towards being perfect- ed into a law.

"At the æra of the Reſtoration, the houſe of commons ſeem to have judged it requiſite to inſtitute a tho- rough

rough inquiry into the fees received or demanded by the officers of the cuſtoms, and to have had it in contemplation to correct or remove the defects which then ſubſiſted, and to provide againſt the like evils in future, by eſtabliſhing, upon definite footing, the fees to be taken at the different ports. This apparent deſign of parliament, commenced in execution at that period, and proſecuted at different times, during ſome ſubſequent years, was no farther matured than has been ſhewn; and the ſtate in which the ſubject remains, evinces that the work has not ſince been reſumed to effect.

"The ſyſtem of fees now exiſtent is, in our judgment, fundamentally imperfect.—Such a ſyſtem, if rightly conſtituted, ſhould have three properties:

"1ſt, It ſhould conduce to the eaſe and accommodation of commerce.

"2d, It ſhould offer a ſafe and equal ſource of reward to the officer.

"3d, It ſhould be pure of all tendency injurious to the revenue.

"The obſervations which follow are intended to demonſtrate, that the payment to the officer by fee does not accord with theſe principles.

"The liſts of fees uſually taken, returned to us by the officers of the out-ports, and of which we have annexed a portion as ſpecimens, exhibit ſtrongly the defects under which the ſubject labours in regard to the merchant. Upon a general examination of theſe returns, we found them full of perplexity, diſagreement, and confuſion. The expreſſions uſed to deſcribe the buſineſs for which the fee is payable to the officer, are frequently ſo diſſimilar and irreconcileable at different ports, as to render it a matter of difficulty and in ſome caſes of impoſſibility to obtain a ground for clear and certain compariſon. Where ſuch means were attainable, great variety appeared both as to the terms of the deſcription, the amount of the ſum to be paid, and the diviſion thereof among the officers intitled, and that for the ſame ſpecific ſervice.

"This incongruity we did not find to be limited to one claſs of officers, to particular ports, to local circumſtances and tranſactions rarely occurring; nor did the frequency and degree of it ſeem to be regulated by the proximity or diſtance of the ports. The diſſimilarity was general; as prevalent between the head ports and the reſpective members and creeks dependent thereupon, as between ports ſeparate and no way connected; among ports for which tables had been appointed by the authority of parliament, as at thoſe having no ſuch ſtandard. It obtained not merely in the tranſactions of foreign commerce, but extended alſo to the coaſting trade.

"The moſt exact inſpection and compariſon of the fees taken at the different out-ports, which we were able to make, furniſhed numerous examples of diſcordance and variation, few of conformity or agreement: and of this irregular ſyſtem how imperfect is the information given to the merchant, by any notice publicly affixed in the offices at the different ports, has been detailed. An acquaintance with the charge of fees at one port cannot impart a knowledge, can ſcarcely warrant a calculation, of the expence which may be induced by them at another port. Amidſt theſe circumſtances, the merchant, in reſpect of the payment by fee at

the

out-ports, does not, in the ſe of his tranſactions, appear e guarded as he ought, againſt ertainty, trouble, and impoſi-

The force of this truth, as ap- d to the port of London, is evi- t from the examinations of Mr. omas Hubbert, Mr. William lter Viney, and Mr. Thomas es. We alſo learn from the ex- nation of Arthur Hammond, eſq. of the general ſurveyors reſi- t in London, and who, in exe- ing the duties of his office, has n ſent upon inſpections to the -ports, that frequent references, order of the board of cuſtoms, made to the general ſurveyors, on complaints of the merchants egard to fees, as either being ex- ſive, or not warranted by law; d that he has known the fees to repreſented in ſome inſtances as certain and increaſing in the ſum: d complaints of a ſimilar kind ve been made to him when upon e inſpecting ſervice at the out- rts.

"By the examination of Mr. hn Timothy Swainſon, it ap- ars, that the ſame evils are felt d complained of in the planta- ons. In the year 1785, a memo- l preſented to the treaſury by the eſt India merchants, and referred the board of cuſtoms, ſtates, nong other matters, "That re- eſs is neceſſary reſpecting the and cuſtom-houſe officers, who ould exact more than the eſta- liſhed fees, for diſpatch money, or n other pretences; and that ſuch ſhall by any means require, take, receive more than the eſtabliſhed ees, or cauſe any unneceſſary delay ſhipping, ſhould be immediately roceeded againſt." Nor does the fficer of the cuſtoms ſtand ſafely nd well circumſtanced touching his emolument as derived from fees.—His ſituation is perilous. We have ſhewn how far the parliamentary authority for that ſpecies of payment extends.—The larger proportion of the out-ports have it not; and in the port of London, and at thoſe ports where there are tables ſo ſanctioned, the contents of them are very limited, and totally inapplicable to the buſineſs and officers of this time.

"All fees are prohibited, except ſuch as have been eſtabliſhed by parliament. Some of the officers have no ſalaries: many have ſalaries ſo ſmall as not to afford common ſupport. Thus placed they muſt, by taking fees ſo bidden by law, offend againſt their duty, and riſque the conſequences; or endure an official ſituation whence the means of livelihood cannot be derived. Thoſe conſequences are heavy: they go to loſs of employment, incapacity of being readmitted into the ſervice, and other penalties. Here the officer ſeems to be placed in a hard and improper alternative:—and the danger is not the only evil. The fee, in various other particulars, operates inexpediently by him. The mode itſelf of receiving a ſtipend by very ſmall ſums is troubleſome, and not always convenient for buſineſs. Where one officer (as often happens) collects the fees due to another, that tranſaction may beget diſtruſt; and, accordingly, complaints are ſometimes made by officer againſt officer, for fees taken and with-held.

"The income dependant upon fees is precarious and unequal: it may be greatly injured, and nearly loſt, by the diminution of particular buſineſs, by new regulations, or other cauſes: a material diverſity in the emoluments of officers in the ſame ſtation and truſt may thereby be

be created. The inconvenience we advert to extends farther. A payment by fee not only occaſions (except where all the fees received are carried to a common ſtock, and equally divided) diſparity of profit among the ſame claſs of officers, but it ſerves to break down the uniformity of emolument between officers acting in branches of the department diſtinct from each other, yet equal in official rank, and thoſe other circumſtances which form the title to, and ought to fix the ſtandard of reward. Inſtances are not wanting, where, by means of the ſame operation, the income of the ſubordinate officer is carried greatly beyond that of the ſuperior. Theſe effects are, we think, ſubverſive of a juſt equality in the diſtribution of recompence, and unfavourable to the proper gradation of office.

"The objections which we have in this general way ſtated, are not built upon hypotheſis: they are founded upon fact, and illuſtrations of them contained in the accounts of the emoluments of the officers of the cuſtoms, annexed the one to our laſt, the other to this Report.

"We have hitherto, in conſidering the ſubject of fees, fixed our attention upon the merchant and the officer; and it ſeems obvious that for the advantage of both ſome material change therein is requiſite.

"If the view extended no farther, it might become a matter of deliberation, whether a reviſion and amendment of the ſyſtem might not be feaſible and ſufficient: but a third conſideration, which muſt outweigh all others, does, in our opinion, demand the total abolition of this mode of payment to the officers—we mean, the good of the revenue.

"The office of the cuſtoms exiſts for the purpoſe of a great and important collection from the ſu ject.—The officer holds his emplo ment by the immediate appointme of, or through the intervention ſome authority originally flowi from the crown.—The main ſco of his executive duty is to ſecu the juſt payment of the ſums d upon different articles of commerc and to enforce a compliance wi the requiſites ordained by law. A officer ſo appointed, and for ſuc an end, ought, in conſiſtency a prudence, to reap the compenſatio for his ſervices ſolely from the pow whence his authority is delegate and to the uſe of which the produc of his labours is applied. It is no we think, proper or ſafe, that h emoluments ſhould proceed from an other ſource than the crown or na tional treaſure.

"The revenue of the cuſtoms however conſiderable in the aggre gate, reſts, and muſt reſt, in origin materially upon the integrity an diligence of officers not high in th official ſcale. The vigilant guar of the ſhip, from her arrival i port until the legal duties payabl upon all her cargo have been ſatiſ fied, and the aſcertaining faithfully and accurately the weight, number, quantity, quality, or whatever may be the rule for fixing the amount o the duty due upon the article o commerce, are the main operations which ſecure and determine the receipt. The officer in diſcharging theſe truſts, as well as thoſe upon which the diminution of the receipt by bounty or drawback depends, is continually placed in a ſituation where the rights of the public, and the intereſts of the individual, are oppoſed. In ſome tranſactions he has ſpecially the exerciſe of a diſcretionary judgment, and in the general courſe of the buſineſs much is in his power.

"With

' With whatever ſtrictneſs a line
conduct under theſe circumſtan-
may be watched, it behoves, as
primary precaution, to fix the
de of reward upon the pureſt
ndation. The practice of allow-
the officer to be paid by the
rchant, for the performance of
cial buſineſs, appears to be re-
gnant to that maxim. It occa-
ns an intercourſe unfit and dan-
rous, and brings them into a mu-
l relation, in which they ſhould
er ſtand. Habits of pecuniary
igation or exchange of private
ereſt, ought not to mingle with
execution of ſuch public duty.
The ſubſiſtence of the officer who
lects revenue, ſhould in no wiſe
end upon the perſon who con-
utes. By theſe obſervations, we
uld not be thought to convey im-
tation upon any officer or claſs of
cers.—We have no inſtances of
ſconduct in view.—We reaſon
on general truths.

" It is not to be overlooked, that
fee has in itſelf an inherent de-
t. That method of payment can-
t be ſo adjuſted as to bear exact
portion to the value of the ſub-
t which it affects. The fee is
iven ſum paid upon a certain do-
ment, or for a certain ſervice:
ether it be upon an entry, or by
package, or tale, or ſuch like
aſure, the different value of the
ods does not produce any corre-
nding variation in the fee. And
s is not barely a ſpeculative im-
rfection; it has hurtful conſe-
ences. We have it in evidence,
at orders, when but to ſmall a-
unt, have been very frequently left
executed on account of the hea-
neſs of the fees which muſt have
en paid upon them; and, farther,
at theſe orders, there was great
aſon to believe, were thereby di-
verted into the channels of foreign trade.

" The principle which has determined our judgment upon the inexpediency of admitting the payment by fee to the officer of the cuſtoms, applies in equal force to the recompence or gratuity.

" The gratuity, as by nature leſs definite than the fee, is, where uſage has not corrected that defect, more faulty. But this kind of diſcrimination matters little. Our poſition, if ſolid, can allow of no exception. It is true that the ſervice for which the gratuity is payable is ſpecial, and out of the ordinary courſe. The legiſlature has, however, authorized the attendance of the officer at times and places not required by law, as a proper and neceſſary accommodation for trade; and it ſeems meet that the execution of ſuch buſineſs ſhould be made a part of his regular duty, and the reward thereof be provided for in the annual ſtipend allotted to him.

" We are accordingly of opinion, that every payment by fee or gratuity, or in any ſhape whatſoever, by the merchant or others to the officer, for or on account of buſineſs done in the diſcharge of his official duty, ought to be aboliſhed throughout the whole department of the cuſtoms; and that the reward of the officer (except in what ariſes from ſeizures) ſhould be by ſalary alone.

" If this regulation be adopted, a proviſion for the officer, in lieu of the emolument he now derives from fees and gratuities, muſt be made. That charge muſt either be borne by the revenue of the cuſtoms, or, if to remain upon the merchant, ſome equal and convenient method muſt be deviſed, whereby perſons tranſacting buſineſs with the office may

ſupply a fund for that purpoſe. Whether with the load of debt that preſſes upon the country, the total exoneration of commerce from this incumbrance might, by the many beneficial effects to foreign and domeſtic trade which muſt follow, ſufficiently countervail and compenſate for the increaſe of public expence thence induced, is one of thoſe high matters to be reſerved for the deliberation of the legiſlature, and on which we do not preſume to offer an opinion.

"If the merchant is to have his buſineſs in the office of the cuſtoms tranſacted gratuitouſly, or if he is, by a ſubſtitute for fees, ſtill to pay on account of the revenue what has hitherto been taken of him for the benefit of the officer, the change introduced will in either caſe be great. And it will no doubt be an object with the ſuperintending branches of the department, to have the utmoſt care that the introduction of a ſyſtem unſupported by former habits, and placing the officer and the merchant in a new relative ſituation, may not obſtruct or leſſen any of the fair official accommodations to trade now permitted.

"We have propoſed that a fixed annual ſalary ſhould become the ſole reward to the officer of the cuſtoms for executing the duty of his office. That ſalary ought, we think, in every inſtance to be a compenſation fully adequate to the employment. We do not thereby mean any arrangement tending to the profuſe diſpoſal of public money or the conceſſion of unneceſſary advantage to the officer—We mean ſuch an appointment as ſhall be judged reaſonable and competent, due regard being had to the talents or induſtry required, the truſt committed, the reſponſibility annexed and the ſtation in office and life of the perſon employed. And this we deem, is ſtrictly conſiſtent with ſound œconomy, which manifeſts itſelf, not by withholding from the efficient ſervant of the public a proper return for his ſervice, and the fair means of ſupport, but by ſuppreſſing uſeleſs offices, reducing overgrown emoluments, ſtriking off unneceſſary expences, and modelling every department upon ſuch a plan, that each officer ſhall have a fit and ſufficient portion of duty aſſigned to him, and all needleſs ſuperfluity in the number of officers maintained be rejected.—A ſalary eſtimated by this juſt and liberal ſtandard will, in our opinion, be finally for the ſafety and welfare of the revenue; whilſt to admit the preſſure of neceſſity, upon ſituations expoſed to frequent temptation, and affording eaſy opportunities of yielding thereto, can hardly be reconciled to prudence or humanity.

"The inſtitution of one plain ſalary to the officer, will be attended with another good effect: it will ſimplify the mode of reward in this office. We found it complicate and perplexed, conſiſting often, in that portion of it derived from the crown of various minute payments by ſalary, and of different poundages or allowances allotted to particular ſervices, and paid under ſpecial authorities to the ſame officer—Diſtinctions of no uſe, and ſerving to multiply and ſubdivide account. Nothing ought to be more clear, and ſpeedily aſcertainable than the charge upon the public, and the profit to the officer, ariſing from any employment. How little the ſyſtem now obtaining in the cuſtoms is ſuited to this kind of preciſion, is apparen

irent from the detail given at the nning of this Report. More a twelve month elapsed before office could furnish us with a plete account of the emolu- ts of the officers for one year.

As the stipend to the officer ld in the first instance be in a le form, so it ought, we think, e exempt from all subsequent actions upon public account. practice of issuing a sum, to ive back a portion thereof after portion has been subject to a uit, to delay, and diminution charges of collection, seems to inconsistent and unthrifty. In ect of the payment for the land made by many of the officers, incongruity goes farther. The ual contributions to that tax, by ers whose salaries do not exceed pounds a year, are again paid n out of the duties of the cus- s; and thus this process of pay- t and repayment is carried one farther, in reality to no other t than the transfer of a certain ion of the produce of the cus- revenue to that derived from . The sums in this way paid repaid are to an amount not in- siderable. From two accounts cured by us, it appears that the paid out of the duties of the oms, for the land tax assessed on salaries of the officers of the oms in the port of London, the year 1784, was 823*l.* 8*s.* 8*d.* that the sum paid out of the du- of the customs, for the land tax ssed on the salaries of the officers he customs at the out-ports, for year 1784, was 8,842*l.* —. 10¼*d.* ether, 9,665*l.* 9*s.* 6¼*d.*

If the present distinctions and ropriations of the national funds uld be thought to require the tinuance, in the office of the cus- toms, of the contributions to the land tax, the shilling and sixpenny duties, the most compendious method of accomplishing that end will be, in the first instance, to fix the salaries of the officers at such a rate as to allow for those payments being charged upon the revenue, and to pay out of the custom duties in totals the sums due upon the emoluments of the officers to these three respective collections — A mode which will be rendered easy, when the salary becomes the sole source of emolument.

"The examinations taken with a view to collect the practical observations of trade upon the objects then immediately before us, among various matters, of which some have been already discussed, and others, as regarding the executive duty of particular officers, may, we think, with propriety be referred to the attention of the presiding power in the department, contain one subject of so general and important a nature as to merit special consideration.—We advert to the holidays observed in the customs. The disadvantages occasioned to trade by their frequency have been stated: they are, upon the strong concurrent testimony of experience, numerous and great.

"A subject like commerce, of necessity depending in its movements upon many inevitable contingencies, such as winds, tides, seasons; and peculiarly liable to injury from being retarded in its progress, and compelled to forego the favourable occasion, ought, it should seem, when regulations are directed to it, to have every indulgence and accommodation not incompatible with the end of those regulations.

"The wants of the country have made it necessary to impose a variety

of burthens upon different articles of merchandize; and whatever official delay, formality, and other cautionary interpoſition, are expedient for the ſafe and regular conduct of this ſyſtem, ſo as to ſecure produce, and effect the other objects comprehended therein; of theſe a moſt exact and unvarying obſervance muſt be maintained. This, and no more, public utility appears to require. Any needleſs clog or reſtraint upon the free courſe and diſpatch of commerical buſineſs muſt, we deem, in a nation deriving, to the degree this does, ſtrength and pre-eminence from the operations of trade, be repugnant to general good.—The holidays kept in the cuſtoms are ſeemingly in this predicament: they are forty-five in number; and if from the year the fifty-two days ſet apart for public worſhip be deducted, they form a conſiderable portion of the time allotted for work.

"We farther find, that theſe holidays, in their prejudical influence, do not act upon trade alone; they are, in one ſtriking inſtance, fraught with evil tendency to the revenue. The legiſlature have, by the 13th and 14th of Charles the Second, an act made for the expreſs purpoſe of preventing frauds and regulating abuſes in the cuſtoms, confined within ſpecific limits the time admitted between the arrival of a veſſel from parts beyond the ſeas, and the reporting her contents and lading. When holidays intervene, as the report cannot then be made, this limitation is extended, and a moſt indiſpenſable legiſlative precaution is ſo far defeated; thereby impairing the fences againſt unlawful acts, and opening a very dangerous inlet to fraudulent and evil practices. It is alſo probable, that holidays, by delaying the loading or unloading of ſhips, and occaſioning the abſe of many of the officers from t ſtations, may, at thoſe times, in rious ways, increaſe or facilitate means of carrying on the ſame i proceedings.

"These forcible objections the frequent obſervance of holi in this office preſent themſelves: is plain that few of them are at ſent applied to thoſe ſervices of ligion for which they were origi ly inſtituted; and therefore the ceſſity of their preſervation ca ſtand upon that ground. Accor to the ſuggeſtions of our judgm they can, if at all uſeful, be ſo in one of theſe two ways; ei for the ſyſtem of office, or for officer. If holidays are wante occaſional ceſſations from pu work, to afford an opportunity reviſing, bringing up, adjuſt and completing parts of the off buſineſs, which are not perfecte the courſe of conſtant daily tran tion, and which would, by rem ing behind, interrupt order; o intervals of reſt and relaxation the officer, that he may thereb enabled to go through the labo of his employment effectually the ſervice—theſe are conſiderat of weight and ſolidity. Howe the former reaſon, ſhould it a obtain, muſt be partial, and pr lent only in certain lines of the ſineſs; and it is not to be concei but that ſuch arrangements within department might be introduced, would ſerve to obviate that difficu In reſpect to the latter, it ſeems poſite to remark, that a given an al quantity of buſineſs to be formed, may as to execution brought into a ſmaller compaſs time, but cannot ſubſtantially be miniſhed by the operation of h days. That kind of ſuſpenſion f

k must create a consequent ex- of it: the officer, previously d, is in the result called upon greater effort: and when holidays ben together, or near to each r, and at busy periods (in a rtment where the entries in- ds in the port of London have ne day amounted to about four dred), an extreme of hurry, and anxiety, may be induced, ly burthensome upon the officer self, and not advantageous to business, which is in all lines conducted under an equal and lar division of labour.

Of the thirty-one holidays an- ly kept in the customs under authority of the legislature, nty-seven are established by the and 6th of Edward the Sixth, ter the 3d—an act framed almost centuries and a half ago. That governed as it must have been the lights and manners of the has this remarkable clause; it shall be lawful to every hus- dman, labourer, fisherman, and ll and every other person or per- , of what estate, degree, or con- n he or they be, upon the holi- aforesaid, in harvest, or at any r time of the year when neces- shall require, to labour, ride, or work any kind of work, at r free wills and pleasure; any g in this act to the contrary not- standing. Had commerce been ibited to the understanding of ancestors, in the enlarged form, with the important combina- s, under which we behold that ect, probably it would have been nguished by a due place in this t of provisionary wisdom, against hindrance of labour or business ful to the state.

The act of the 6th and 7th of liam the Third, in some measure supplied what was wanting in this ancient law, by permitting the officer of the customs, upon urgent occasions, to work at times not legally required of him, in consideration of a recompence made by the merchant for such service. A farther progress in the same direction would be consonant with the ripened policy and advanced state of things at this day.

"Since, therefore, on the one hand, there does not appear to be any essential necessity for continuing the holidays in the customs in their present number; and, on the other hand, their observance may be productive of evil to the revenue, and is highly inconvenient and detrimental to trade, with the extension or decrease of which the custom receipt must augment or diminish, we are of opinion, that a regulation rendering these holidays less numerous would be to national benefit.

"The restriction of the annual holidays in the customs to the great festivals, and a few memorable anniversaries; or a reduction of them, upon the principle of preventing their happening near to each other (Sunday being regarded as one), and of their being rejected at the seasons when the bulk of the import or export trade is transacting, might either of them suffice, and the mode judged most expedient be adopted.

"We thought it to be our duty thus to submit to the wisdom of the legislature what has occurred to us upon a subject which arose in the course of our inquiries, and relates to matters of high public concern.

"In pursuing the expenditure incurred in the management of this revenue for the year 1784, the plan upon which the cruizing vessels of the customs are supported, came under our observation. We found the cruizers maintained either upon the

eſtabliſhment, or by contract; and the contracts of two kinds. It is not for us to judge which of theſe different modes of maintenance, or whether a plan like the preſent mixed and comprehending each of them, is beſt adapted to the nature and exigencies of the ſervice, and moſt for the public advantage: to the board of cuſtoms, where the aids of paſt experience are united with continual practical knowledge on the ſubject (the true means of determining), that deciſion properly belongs. But obſerving one part of the ſyſtem which appears to us defective in principle, upon that we conſider ourſelves bound to remark. It is this: the contracts entered into for the cruizers are, many of them, made with the collectors and controllers (together or ſeparately) of the ports at which the veſſels are reſpectively ſtationed. Of twenty-four cruizers employed by contract in the year 1784, not leſs than ſixteen were thus circumſtanced We apprehend it to be an obvious truth, that no intereſt in the performance of a ſervice ought to veſt in the perſon whoſe duty it is to control the execution thereof: the union of theſe two truſts is not to be confided in; an official ſelf-control ſeems to be practically a contradiction, and a thing impoſſible.—The application intended is plain.

"The cruizing ſervice in the cuſtoms imports much to the revenue and fair trade of the country: that it may be conducted to beſt effect, depends upon many concurrences; as, the proper outfit of the veſſel, the repair and ſtate in which ſhe is kept, the number and condition of her men, her plying her ſtation diligently, and other particulars of a like kind. The ſuperintendance and check, at the out-ports over moſt if not the whole of this combination, reſide with the collectors and controllers; theſe officers are eit to be informed of, inſpect, exami report, or certify upon the ſeve circumſtances relative to the p formance of, and expenditure atte ing this ſervice.

"It appears poſſible that crown and the contractor, thou the clear produce of the ſeizu made by the cruizer is for th common benefit, may, in previ inſtances, have their intereſts tend different ways. For example, ſavi in the repairs or victualling of veſſel; a complement of men ſh of the number allowed by charged to the crown; a regard the ſafety of the veſſel herſelf hazardous weather (and other ca might be put), may, it ſhould fee in one or the other ſpecies of c tract, be made to operate to prejudice of the revenue, and advantage of the contractor; a what is not the leaſt material co ſideration, the efficacy of a princi inſtrument, uſed for the repreſ of very pernicious acts, thereby diminiſhed.

"It is not on any ſuppoſed p valence of ſuch ill conſequences t our reaſoning is built. We do know that they exiſt. We l ſolely to theſe poſitions—that ev check ſhould ſtand upon ground p fectly free from any intereſted co nection with the ſubject to checked; and, that all official rangement ought to preclude opening for injury to the public ſ vice. Therefore we think, that leſs ſome very powerful cauſe tains for adhering to the preſ practice, no collector, controll or officer belonging to the cuſto ſhould be admitted to contract f or to have ſhare or concern in, contracts made for the cruizing v ſels to be employed in the ſervice this revenue.

"In our laſt Report we reco

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mended the ſuppreſſion of ſeveral inferior treaſuries in the cuſtoms; as alſo, of the offices ſupported for the purpoſe of controlling or paſſing the accounts kept in thoſe treaſuries. Theſe various offices, we found, exiſted in order that the produce ariſing out of ſeizures and fines might be kept diſtinct from the cuſtom duties in all the ſtages of receipt, payment, and audit of account. That diſtinction, as repugnant to uniformity, perſpicuity, and œconomy, we thought, ought to be diſcontinued; and, in place thereof, one treaſury, and one control, to be eſtabliſhed.

"The neceſſity of ſuch regulation has been farther confirmed to us. The accounts in every public office ought to be ſo conſtructed, as to exhibit, if coming under the view of parliament, a complete ſtatement of all receipt and expenditure within the department. By the practice of diſtinguiſhing theſe two ſources of revenue in the cuſtoms, this end is counteracted. An account of the groſs and net produce of the cuſtoms, we learn from the examination of Mr. Joſhua Powell, is not preſented regularly to parliament, but only upon ſpecial requiſition.

"When an order, purſuant to that requiſition, comes to the board of cuſtoms, they, by their minute, direct the controller general to make out and preſent the account required; and no other account is made out, by any officer of the cuſtoms, in conſequence of the requiſition. The controllor general includes in the account, all he can include, the groſs receipt of the cuſtom duties, and the payments therefrom. The produce ariſing from ſeizures and fines, and the payments out of that fund, he cannot inſert: they are not within his cognizance or control.

"By the examination of Mr. John Baſtin, firſt clerk to the accountant of petty receipts, in whoſe office the account of ſeizures is paſſed, we find, that, upon conſulting the books in his office, it does not appear that any account has ever been delivered to parliament of the produce of ſeizures, fines, and forfeitures, for London and the out-ports, with the various payments for management made out of that produce, and the payments into the exchequer. Thence it follows, that no perfect and entire ſtate of the produce and expenditure of this office is laid before parliament, or can be, whilſt the preſent mode of forming and obtaining the account is preſerved.

"In the year 1784, the payments into the exchequer, out of the king's net ſhare of ſeizures and fines, by the two receivers of fines and forfeitures, and the ſolicitors of the cuſtoms, amounted together to to 25,961*l.* 16*s.* 6¾*d.* their payments for charges of management, together with thoſe made by the collectors at the out-ports out of the king's net ſhare of ſeizures, to 69,659*l.* 4*s.* —. ſums which would not have appeared had the general account of the cuſtoms for the year been called for. And this defect the more requires to be corrected, in as much as the ſyſtem of directing the various charges incident to this revenue upon the fund ariſing out of ſeizures and fines, has of late been gaining ground. We are informed by Mr. John Mills, that a conſiderable part of the incidental expences of the cuſtoms, which uſed to be paid by the receiver general, has for ſome time paſt been paid by the receiver of fines and forfeitures for the out-ports.

"Ac-

"Accounts laid before parliament become the ſubject for deliberations and proceedings of high national concern: they ſhould comprehend the full means of information. The defect we are obſerving upon not only prevents that information from being complete, but it may ſerve to miſlead, and give riſe to erroneous concluſions: for, whilſt the total charges of management ſtated in the controller general's account may, comparatively with thoſe of former years, be decreaſing, the real expence of managing this revenue, including the payments made out of the king's net ſhare of ſeizures and fines, and which do not appear in the general account, may augment.

"We are, therefore, of opinion, that the reform we ſuggeſted, of bringing all receipt and payment into the office of the receiver general, and of extending the control of the controller general to the produce of ſeizures and fines, in the ſame way that it now operates upon the cuſtom duties, is urgently wanted, and ſhould, without delay, be carried into execution.

"To induce conſiſtency throughout the forms of framing and paſſing the accounts in this revenue, a regulation is neceſſary reſpecting the plantation accounts. We are informed by Mr. Joſhua Powell, that the accounts of the duties received, and the payments out of them, in the plantations, have never been paſſed in the exchequer, but by the controller general, under the authority of the board of cuſtoms: they were not made out in a manner ſo as to be compatible with the forms of the exchequer: they have, within theſe two or three years, been put upon ſuch a footing, that they might go through thoſe forms, if the balances depending could be admitted at any given period. Theſe balances are now open for more than a century. No evil could ariſe from admitting them at any period; for if they were afterwards found to be erroneous, the collectors might be ſurcharged in caſes where ſums were due to the public, and have credit where balances were due to them.

"It ſeems therefore right, that proper authority ſhould be given to take theſe balances at the period moſt convenient for the account. The controller general will be enabled to include in the general account of the cuſtoms, when required by parliament, the groſs receipt and the payments at the plantations; whereas hitherto no more of that receipt and expenditure has been inſerted than the ſum brought to account by the receiver general, and the charges on the head of the plantations paid in England. Thus ſimplicity and unity, qualities eſſential to the apt and expedient conduct of buſineſs, peculiarly that of account, and where the tranſactions are of magnitude, will be introduced into ſome of the moſt material branches of this great department.

"We here conclude our reſearches into the cuſtoms—an office which has employed much of our time and labour, and engaged us in three ſucceſſive Reports.

"Various matters of moment have, in the purſuit of that object, been brought under our conſideration. Our duty has called upon us for opinions on ſubjects extenſive and intricate: thoſe opinions have frequently terminated in ſuggeſtions ſubverſive of forms long eſtabliſhed; in-

introductory of material change in the ſyſtem; wide and powerful in effect.

"In executing a work thus arduous, we have not ſhrunk from the pains of enquiry:—we have attentively and perſeveringly examined; cautiouſly and deliberately weighed:—we have uſed the beſt lights of our underſtanding to judge right, and endeavoured to render ſervice to the public.

A. PIGGOTT, (L. S.)
RICHARD NEAVE, (L. S.)
SAM. BEACHCROFT, (L. S.)
GEO. DRUMMOND, (L. S.)
WILLIAM ROE, (L. S.)

Office of Accounts,
Surrey Street,
19*th December*, 1786.

SUPPLIES granted by Parliament for the Year 1789.

NAVY.

MARCH 17.

	£.	s.	d.
FOR 20,000 men, including 3860 marines	1,040,000	0	0

MAY 21.

Ordinary, including half-pay	713,000	0	0
Extraordinaries	575,570	0	0
	2,328,570	0	0

ARMY.

MARCH 17.

For 17,448 men, as guards and garrisons	638,562	14	1
Forces in the plantations	315,915	8	9
Deficiency in the difference between the Britiſh and Iriſh eſtabliſhment for 1788	2,891	17	11½
Difference between ditto for 1789	8,245	10	1
Forces in the Faſt Indies	11,435	12	10½
Deficiency in full pay of ſuperannuated officers for 1788	1,023	11	10
Full pay to ditto for 1789	10,871	14	10¾
General and general ſtaff-officers	6,409	8	0
To the poſtmaſter general, &c.	63,043	5	0
Reduced officers of the land forces and marines	172,787	5	5
Ditto horſe guards	212	14	7
Officers late in the Dutch ſervice	3,392	14	2
Reduced officers of Britiſh American forces	55,092	10	0
Allowances to ſeveral ditto	4,907	10	0
Officers widows	9,943	3	3
Heſſian ſubſidy	36,093	15	0
Chelſea penſioners	177,465	0	8

MAY 28.

Extraordinaries for 1788	398,769	1	3
	1,917,062	17	9¾

ORDNANCE.

MARCH 17.

Five companies of military artificers	9,620	0	0
Land ſervice for 1789	220,576	15	8

MARCH

	£.	s.	d.
MARCH 19.			
Land ſervice not provided for in 1788	9,306	4	1
Extraordinaries for 1789	218,017	6	4
One company of military artificers	1,924	1	8
	459,444	7	9

MISCELLANEOUS SERVICES.

MARCH 17.			
Scotch roads and bridges	4,000	0	0
APRIL 28.			
Britiſh muſeum	3,000	0	0
MAY 28.			
To diſcharge exchequer bills	5,500,000	0	0
Commiſſioners of American claims	2,111	0	6
American ſufferers	41,559	4	0
Bills drawn by the governors of Nova Scotia, the Bahama Iſlands, and New Brunſwick	1,286	19	9¾
Ditto by the commiſſary at New South Wales	2,075	6	1
American and Eaſt Florida ſufferers	313,659	2	5
Addreſs money	34,370	1	4
Convicts at Plymouth and on the Thames	56,598	7	9
Clerk to the commiſſioners of fees and offices	761	8	0
Secretary of the commiſſioners for regulating the ſhipping of ſlaves	500	0	0
Commiſſioners of crown lands	3000	0	0
Secretary of the commiſſioners of the Eaſt Florida Claims	900	0	0
Ditto of American loyaliſts	4,693	8	6
Civil eſtabliſhment of Nova Scotia	6,218	17	6
Ditto of New Brunſwick	5,400	0	0
Ditto of St. John's Iſland	1,900	0	0
Ditto of Cape Breton	2,100	0	0
Ditto of Newfoundland	1,182	10	0
Ditto of the Bahama Iſlands	4,080	0	0
Ditto of New South Wales	2,877	10	0
Chief Juſtice of Dominica	600	0	0
Ditto of the Bermuda Iſlands	580	0	0
JUNE 15.			
Secret ſervice-money abroad	191,342	13	0
Carleton houſe	35,200	0	0
African forts	13,000	0	0
JULY 7.			
To John Reader, eſq. a compenſation for his loſs by diſmantling of an iron foundery in Jamaica, in 1782, by order of ſir Archibald Campbell	3,000	0	0
JULY 20.			
Proſecution of Warren Haſtings, eſq.	20,312	6	4
	6,256,309	2	2¾

DEFICIENCIES.

JUNE 15.

	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.
Deficiency of last year's grants				331,649	18
Navy	2,328,570	0	0		
Army	1,917,062	17	9¾		
Ordnance	459,444	7	9		
Miscellaneous Services	6,256,309	2	2¾		
Deficiencies	331,649	18	3¾		
	11,293,036	6	1¼		

WAYS *and* MEANS *for raising the Supplies for* 1789.

MARCH 23.

	£.	s.	d.
Land-tax and malt duty	2,750,000	0	0

JUNE 11.

A tontine	1,002,500	0	0
Annuities for 18¼ years, from April 5, 1789	187,000	0	0
Profit on 50,000 lottery tickets at 15l. 8s. 7½ d.	271,562	10	0
Exchequer bills	5,500,000	0	0
Surplus of consolidated fund	1,530,000	0	0

JULY 21.

Balance in the hands of the paymaster general	398,769	0	0
	11,639,831	10	0
	11,293,036	6	1
Excess of Ways and Means	£. 346,795	3	10

NEW TAXES.

Additional halfpenny on newspapers	28,000	0	0
——— sixpence on advertisements	9,000	0	0
——— duty on cards and dice	9,000	0	0
——— ——— probates and wills	18,261	0	0
——— ——— legacies to collateral relations only	5,000	0	0
——— duties on carriages and horses	41,739	0	0
	111,000	0	0

Public

blic Acts passed in the Sixth Session of the Sixteenth Parliament of Great Britain.

March 24.

The mutiny bill.

Act for regulating the marine rces while on shore.

American intercourse bill.

April 8.

Land tax act.

Malt duty act.

May 19.

Militia pay and clothing bill.

Act to repeal the duty on shops.

Act to suspend, for a limited me, an act of last sessions, for the etter securing of the rights of free-olders at county elections, and for ndemnifying the persons appointed carry it into execution.

Act for repealing the said act of ast session.

Act for the importation of bread, our, corn, &c. from the United States of America into the province f Quebec.

Act to continue an act for the en-couraging of the arts of designing nd printing linens, &c.

June 24.

Act to amend the hawkers and pedlars act.

Act to incorporate certain persons under the name of the Northumber-land fishery.

July 13.

Two acts for raising money by exchequer bills.

The lottery bill.

Act for raising money by short annuities.

Ditto by a tontine.

Act for repealing the duties on spirits, &c. in Scotland

Act to indemnify persons who have omitted to qualify themselves for public offices, &c.

Act for allowing further time for the enrollment of the deeds and wills of papists, &c.

Act to prevent the wilful burning and destroying ships, or destroying any woollen, linen, silk, or other goods in Scotland.

Act for granting additional duties on horses and carriages.

Ditto on probates of wills, letters of administration, receipts for legacies, &c.

Ditto on newspapers, advertisements, cards, and dice.

Act for the more effectual encouragement of the manufacture of flax and cotton.

Act respecting the importation and exportation of corn, starch, rape-seed, &c.

Act to explain the American intercourse bill.

Act to regulate the Newfoundland, Greenland, and Southern whale fisheries.

Act to regulate the trade of pawnbrokers.

August 11.

Act respecting piece goods wove in this kingdom, persons licensed to retail spirituous liquors, &c.

Act for allowing a drawback on the exportation of tea to Guernsey, &c.

Act for appointing commissioners to enquire into the emoluments of the officers of the customs in Scotland.

Act for continuing for a time the slave trade regulating bill.

Act for appointing commissioners to enquire further into the losses of the American loyalists.

Act for the more effectual executing the laws respecting gaols.

Act to enable the East India company to raise money by further increasing their capital stock.

Act for repealing the duties on tobacco and snuffs, and granting new duties in lieu thereof.

PRICES

PRICES of STOCK for the Year 1789.

N. B. The highest and lowest Prices of each STOCK in the Course of any Month are put down in that Month.

	Bank Stock	3 per c. red.	3 ditt. conf.	4 p. c conf.	5 p. c.	Long Ann.	Short Ann.	India Stock	India An.	India bonds	S. Sea Stock	Old Ann.	New Ann.	Navy Bills.	Exchq. Bills.	Lottery Tickets.
Jan.	169¾	72¼	71⅝	92⅜	109¼	21½	1 3⅛	161¾	68⅓	70	80½	71⅞	70⅝	1¾	23	15 8 0
	170⅛	73⅜	74¼	93½	113⅜	21⅝	1 3⅜	166¾	68⅜	78	82½	72⅝	71⅞	1⅞	28	16 3 8
Feb.	169¾	72⅜	71¾	92¾	109¼	21 9/16	1 3⅛	162	67⅞	70	80¾	72⅛	71⅝	1¾	22	14 18 0
	175⅞	74¾	74	96⅜	113¾	22 7/16	1 3⅜	166	68¾	75	83¾	74	72⅛	1⅞	25	15 18 0
Mar.	173¼	74½	73½	95⅞	113¼	22 5/16	1 3 1/16	165	69⅞	74	83¾	73⅝	73⅛	1⅝	23	
	176½	75¼	74⅝	96⅝	114⅛	22½	1 3¾	169¼	70¼	78	84	74½	73⅞	1¾	25	
Apr.	173⅛	73⅞	74⅜	94⅝	113⅜	22 1/16	1 3¼	168	69	73	85¾	73½	73⅝	1⅝	26	
	176⅝	75⅞	75⅛	96¾	114¼	22 9/16	1 3 1/16	169	69½	80	86½	73¾	74½	1¾	30	
May	173¾	74	74⅞	94⅞	114⅛	22⅛	1 3⅜	168¼	69¼	78	85¾	73½	74⅜	1½	29	
	179	76⅜	77⅛	97	116⅝	22 1/16	1 3 9/16	170	70¼	85	86¼	75⅜	76⅜	1⅝	30	
June	176⅞	75⅛	76⅛	95⅞	115⅝	22⅜	1 3⅜	169½	69⅝	78	86½	74½	75½	1½	29	
	180¼	77	77¾	97½	116¼	22¾	1 3⅝	174	70⅜	85	86⅞	76¼	75⅝	1⅝	30	
July	179⅛	76½	77⅛	97⅛	115⅛	22⅝	1 3 9/16	170¼	70⅜	81	85¾	76	76⅝	1⅜	30	15 16 6
	185⅞	79⅞	79⅞	99⅞	117⅞	23¼	1 3⅞	175	73¼	100	87½	79	78¼	1⅝	33	15 18 0
Aug.	184½	78¾	78⅜	98¾	115⅝	23 1/16	1 3 1/16	173½	72¾	97	86¾	78⅛	77¼	¾	36	15 16 0
	191	80⅜	79⅞	99⅞	116⅞	23½	14	179¼	74	107	88⅝	79¾	78¾	1¾	60	16 1 6
Sept.	189¼	79½	79⅓	99½	116½	23 7/16	1 3 5/16	175	74¼	99	88¾	79¼	78¾	⅝	58	15 18 0
	194⅞	82	81⅛	104	122⅛	24⅛	1 4 1/16	178½	76	109	90¼	80⅞	80⅞	⅞	60	16 1 6
Oct.	183¾	77⅞	78¾	97½	117⅛	23 1/16	1 3 7/16	176¼	72⅝	102	88⅛	77¼	78¼	⅝	57	15 18 0
	191½	78⅞	80⅝	102	118¼	23⅞	1 3½	179¾	73¾	107	89¼	78⅛	79¾	⅝	59	16 00 0
Nov.	181½	76¾	77⅝	96⅞	117¼	22 11/16	1 3 5/16	175	72¼	101	87½	76¼	76¾	½	55	15 16 6
	183	78⅛	79⅛	97⅞	118¼	23 1/16	1 3½	179¼	72¾	110	88⅝	77⅜	77⅞	⅝	57	16 1 0
Dec.	181	76⅞	77⅝	97⅛	117¾	22¾	1 3¼	172	71⅝	105	87¾	76⅛	77¼	½	48	15 15 6
	183½	78	78⅞	99¾	118¾	23¾	1 3⅝	176	72⅞	110	89	77⅝	78⅜	⅝	50	15 18 0

BIOGRAPHICAL

ANECDOTES

AND

CHARACTERS.

CHASSE

ET

MEDOLE

BIOGRAPHIQUE

BIOGRAPHICAL

ANECDOTES AND CHARACTERS.

The LIFE of LORD CHANCELLOR COWPER.

[Extracted from the IVth Vol. of Dr. KIPPIS's Edition of the BIOGRAPHIA BRITTANNICA.]

"WILLIAM Cowper, earl Cowper, lord high Chancellor of Great Britain, was deſcended from an ancient family, and ſon to ſir William Cowper, baronet, who was member of parliament for the town of Hertford, in the reigns of Charles II. and William III. He is ſuppoſed to have been born in the caſtle of Hertford, of which his family had been a conſiderable time in poſſeſſion; but of the place, or time of his birth, or where he was educated, we have not been able to obtain any certain information. It appears, however, that being brought up to the ſtudy of the law, he made ſo great a proficiency in it, that, ſoon after he was called to the bar, he was choſen recorder of Colcheſter. His eloquence, and ſkill in his profeſſion, rendered him very conſpicuous in it; and in the reign of king William, he was appointed one of his majeſty's council learned in the law. In 1695, he was choſen one of the repreſentatives in parliament for the town of Hertford; his father, at the ſame time, being elected the other member for that borough. The following year, he appeared as council for the crown on the trials of ſir William Perkins, brigadier Rookwood, major Lowick, and Charles Cranburne, who were convicted of high treaſon, for being concerned in the plot to aſſaſſinate king William. The ſame year, he was alſo council for the crown on the trial of captain Thomas Vaughan, for high treaſon on the high ſeas: and he likewiſe ſupported, in parliament, the bill of attainder againſt ſir John Fenwick. In 1704, he made a ſpeech in the houſe of commons, in the famous caſe of Aſhby and White, in which he maintained, that an action did lie at common law, for an elector, who had been denied his vote for members of Parliament. His practice and reputation continued greatly to increaſe; on the acceſſion of queen Anne, he was again appointed one of the council to the crown; and on the 11th of October, 1705, he was conſtituted lord keeper of the great ſeal of England."

"The following year, commiſſioners having been appointed for England and Scotland, to treat concerning an union of the two kingdoms, they met, for the firſt time, at the Cockpit, Whitehall, on the 16th of April; when the lord keeper

Cowper, who had been appointed one of the commiſſioners for England, made a ſpeech to the lords commiſſioners for Scotland, in which he obſerved to their lordſhips, that the parliament of England were actuated by the ſtrongeſt deſire to attain that union, which had been ſo long thought neceſſary, by all that wiſhed well to the proſperity of both nations; and that the Engliſh commiſſioners now met thoſe for Scotland, with hearts fully reſolved to uſe their utmoſt endeavours to remove all difficulties in the treaty, and to prevent all miſunderſtandings; to have the general and joint good of both kingdoms ſolely in their view, and not the ſeparate intereſt of either, and determined to act as if they were already united in intereſt, and had nothing left to conſider, but what ſettlements and proviſions were moſt likely to conduce to the common ſafety and happineſs of the whole iſland of Great Britain. He attended a variety of other meetings in the management of this important buſineſs; and on the 23d of July waited upon the queen, at St. James's, with the articles agreed upon between the commiſſioners of both kingdoms, as the terms or conditions upon which the intended union was to take place. He was accompanied by the other commiſſioners; and in their names made a ſpeech to her majeſty on the occaſion. Another ſpeech was afterwards made, by the lord chancellor of Scotland, in behalf of the commiſſioners for that kingdom, who attended at the ſame time: and the articles of union, agreed upon by the commiſſioners, with ſome few alterations, were afterwards ratified by the parliaments both of England and Scotland.

"Before that event had taken place, an extraordinary manœuvre the tories in parliament, had throv the whigs, at leaſt ſuch of them were in power, into ſome degree embarraſſment. A motion w made by the tory party in the hou of peers, that an addreſs ſhould preſented to the queen, requeſti her majeſty to invite the princ Sophia, as preſumptive heir to t crown, to come and reſide in En land. The tories knew that if t miniſtry ſupported this meaſu they would give great offence to t queen; and if they oppoſed they would probably be ſuſpect of being enemies to the proteſta ſucceſſion. The motion was, ho ever, oppoſed by the whigs; a rejected by a great majority. B two bills were afterwards broug in, and paſſed, which were deem a great ſecurity to the proteſta ſucceſſion. By the firſt, a regen was appointed on the event of t queen's death; and the ſecond w a bill for the naturalization of t princeſs Sophia, and the iſſue of h body, being proteſtants. Wh theſe bills had received the royal ſent, the earl of Halifax was ſe with them to the court of Hanove and he alſo carried with him lett from the leaders of the whig part and in particular one from the lo keeper, to the elector, expreſſive the ſincerity of his attachment the proteſtant ſucceſſion.

"In conſideration of the lo keeper's merit and ſervices, he w advanced, on the 5th of Novemb 1706, to the dignity of a peer this kingdom, by the ſtyle and ti of lord Cowper, baron Cowper Wingham, in Kent; and on the 4 of May, 1707, her majeſty in cou cil declared him lord high chanc lor of Great Britain. When t ſecond parliament of Great Br tain aſſembled, on the 16th of N vembe

vember, 1708, which was ſoon after the death of prince George of Denmark, the archbiſhop of Canterbury, the lord chancellor Cowper, the lord treaſurer, the lord ſteward, and the maſter of the horſe, were appointed to repreſent her majeſty in parliament; and on this occaſion both houſes were addreſſed in a ſpeech by lord Cowper. On the 1ſt of March, 1708-9, by order of the houſe of peers, he returned thanks to the duke of Marlborough, who had then returned from abroad, and taken his place in the houſe, for the important ſervices performed by him during the preceding campaign; and the following year his lordſhip preſided at the trial of Dr. Sacheverell. The ſame year, in conſequence of the intrigues of Harley and Mrs. Maſham, the earl of Sunderland, ſon-in-law to the duke of Marlborough, was removed from the office of ſecretary of ſtate; and it being apprehended, that this event would give ſo much diſguſt to that great general, that he might be induced to quit the command of the army, a joint letter was ſent to his grace by lord Cowper, the dukes of Newcaſtle and Devonſhire, lords Somers, Oxford, and Halifax, and Mr. Henry Boyle, then ſecretary of ſtate, in which they conjured him, in the ſtrongeſt terms, not to quit his command. But ſoon after, on the 8th of Auguſt, 1710, the earl of Godolphin was removed from the poſt of lord treaſurer, and the other whig miniſters reſigned. The queen ſignified her inclination, notwithſtanding the change of miniſtry, that lord Cowper ſhould ſtill continue in the poſt of chancellor: but he alſo reſigned, as he did not chooſe to remain in office, when an adminiſtration was formed conſiſting of men, whoſe political ſentiments and views were totally different from his own. Soon after the new miniſtry came into office, Mr. Harley being at the head of the treaſury, ſome inquiries were ſet on foot in order to criminate the late adminiſtration; and a vote of cenſure was paſſed relative to the management of the war in Spain. Lord Cowper took an active part in the debates occaſioned by theſe inquiries; and he joined in ſeveral proteſts againſt the determinations of the houſe of peers concerning the conduct of that war. When prince Eugene was in England, he is ſaid to have been conſulted about ſome dangerous ſchemes formed by that prince and the duke of Marlborough. It may reaſonably be queſtioned, whether any ſuch ſchemes were ever really formed by thoſe great men; but however that be, it is allowed on all hands, that they received no countenance or approbation from lord Cowper."

"The part which lord Cowper took, in oppoſition to the adminiſtration of the earl of Oxford, occaſioned him to be attacked by dean Swift, with much virulence, in the Examiner; and ſome reflections were thrown out againſt him, relative to his private character, which is ſaid to have been ſomewhat licentious with reſpect to women.

"As a public man, he continued to adhere ſtedfaſtly to the whigs; and when a debate took place relative to the Catalans, on the 2d of April, 1714, it was obſerved by lord Cowper, and ſome other lords, that the crown of Great Britain having drawn in the Catalans to declare for the houſe of Auſtria and engaged to ſuccour and ſupport them; thoſe engagements ought to have been made good; and lord Cowper moved for an addreſs to her majeſty importing, That her majeſty's en-

for preſerving to the Catalans the full enjoyment of their liberties having proved ineffectual, their lordſhips made it their humble requeſt to her majeſty, that ſhe would be pleaſed to continue her interpoſition in the moſt preſſing manner, in their behalf. An addreſs to this purpoſe, though with ſome alterations, was afterwards agreed to; but to which the queen returned a very evaſive anſwer. Lord Cowper ſtrongly oppoſed giving any parliamentary approbation to the peace of Utrecht, in which he appears to have acted according to the full conviction of his own mind; and indeed, though peace was at that time, as at all others, a very deſireable object, it is manifeſt, from the manner in which the treaty of Utrecht was commenced and concluded, that a due attention was not paid to the honour or intereſt of Great Britan; and that the chief object of thoſe by whom the treaty was negociated, on the part of England, was not the intereſt of their country, but the promotion of their own private views.

"On the 5th of June following, when a debate took place concerning the ſchiſm bill, that bill was very ſtrongly oppoſed by lord Cowper, who obſerved, "that no man was more ready than himſelf to do every thing that ſhould be neceſſary to attain the ſeeming intention of that bill, namely, the preventing the growth of ſchiſm, and the farther ſecuring of the church of England; but that the enacting part would be ſo far from anſwering the title of it, that, in his opinion, it would have a quite contrary effect, and prove equally pernicious to church and ſtate. Inſtead of preventing ſchiſm, and enlarging the pale of the church, this bill tended to introduce ignorance, and its inſeparable attendants, ſuperſtition and irreligion." In ſupport of this idea of the tendency of the bill, his lordſhip farther remarked, that in many country towns, reading, writing, and grammar ſchools, were chiefly ſupported by the diſſenters, not only for the inſtruction and benefit of their own children, but likewiſe of thoſe of the poor churchmen; ſo that the ſuppreſſing of thoſe ſchools would, in ſome places, ſuppreſs the reading of the holy ſcriptures. He alſo oppoſed that clauſe in the bill, by which juſtices of the peace were empowered finally to hear and determine offences againſt it. The bill, however, paſſed both houſes, and received the royal aſſent; but a proteſt againſt it was entered, ſigned by lord Cowper, twenty-ſix other peers, and five biſhops; and in the ſubſequent reign the act was repealed.

"On the demiſe of queen Anne, lord Cowper was nominated one of the lords juſtices of the kingdom, till the arrival of king George I. from Hanover. On the 29th of Auguſt, 1714, he was appointed lord chancellor of Great Britain; and ſhortly after lord lieutenant and cuſtos rotulorum of the county of Hertford. When a new parliament was aſſembled, on the 27th of March, 1715, king George I. declared from the throne, "that he had ordered the lord chancellor to declare the cauſes of calling this parliament, in his majeſty's name and words." He then delivered his ſpeech into lord Cowper's hands, who read it to both houſes. On the 6th of February, 1716, his lordſhip was appointed lord high ſteward for the trial of the rebel lords; as he was alſo, the following year, at the trial of the earl of Oxford, to whom he behaved on that occaſion with great politeneſs. When a bill

bill was brought in by lord Stanhope, "for ſtrengthening the proteſtant intereſt," which included in it a repeal of the ſchiſm act, ſome clauſes of the bill were oppoſed by lord Cowper, who thought they too much interfered with the teſt and corporation acts: for though his lordſhip had ſtrongly oppoſed the ſchiſm bill in the preceding reign, he appears not to have been ſufficiently enlightened on the ſubject of toleration. A change taking place in the miniſtry, in the beginning of March, 1718, lord Cowper reſolved to reſign the great ſeal; but, before his reſignation, the king, on account of his great merit and ſervices, on the 18th of that month, raiſed him to the dignity of a viſcount and earl, by the title of viſcount Fordwich, in the county of Kent, and earl Cowper. The preamble to his patent was drawn up by Mr. Hughes. He reſigned the great ſeal in the month of April: lords commiſſioners were appointed for a few days; after which lord Parker was appointed chancellor.

"After his reſignation, lord Cowper diligently attended the public buſineſs in the houſe of peers, and frequently oppoſed the meaſures of the court. He ſpoke and voted againſt the peerage bill; and the famous South Sea ſcheme alſo received from him a very powerful oppoſition."

"In the year 1723, Chriſtopher Layer, who had been convicted of high treaſon, underwent a long examination before a ſecret committee of the houſe of commons, relative to a conſpiracy for raiſing the Pretender to the throne. The report of this examination was printed by order of the houſe of commons; and it appeared from this report, that Layer, in the courſe of his examination, had mentioned a club of diſaffected perſons, of which, he ſaid John Plunket had told him, that lord Cowper was one. This occaſioned his lordſhip to remark in the houſe of peers, that, after having on ſo many occaſions, and in the moſt difficult times, given undoubted proofs of his hearty zeal and affection for the proteſtant ſucceſſion, and of his attachment to his majeſty's perſon and government, he had juſt reaſon to be offended, to ſee his name bandied about in a liſt of a chimerical club of diſaffected perſons, printed in the report of the ſecret committee, on the bare hearſay of an infamous perſon, notoriouſly guilty of prevarication; and who, in the opinion even of the ſecret committee, "in order to magnify the number of the Pretender's friends, did, in ſeveral liſts, inſert the names of perſons as well affected to the Pretender's ſervice, without having the leaſt authority for ſo doing," which alone was ſufficient to give an air of fiction to the whole conſpiracy. But, in juſtice to his own character, he thought it neceſſary to move, that John Plunket, from whom Layer pretended to have received the liſt of the club, mentioned in the report of the committee, ſhould be immediately ſent for to the bar of that houſe, to be there examined. This motion, after ſome debate, was rejected by the majority; and it was obſerved by lord Townſhend, that as the ſecret committee had declared, that they were ſatisfied of lord Cowper's innocence, his lordſhip's reputation could not have ſuffered upon that account. Lord Cowper, however, thought proper to make a public declaration of his innocence.

"On the 15th of May, this year, earl Cowper made a long ſpeech in the houſe of peers, in oppoſition to the bill for inflicting

pains and penalties on biſhop Atterbury. He urged a variety of arguments to ſhew, that the evidence againſt the biſhop was extremely inſufficient; and he pointed out the danger of ſuch a precedent, as that of inflicting pains and penalties on a man without law, and without proper evidence againſt him."

"The laſt public tranſaction, in which we find earl Cowper engaged was oppoſing the bill for taxing the papiſts; which he repreſented as an impolitic and indefenſible meaſure. He remarked, that it might afford a pretext to ſome foreign princes for treating their proteſtant ſubjects with ſeverity; and he obſerved, that no ſtate had ever got any thing by perſecuting its ſubjects. In France, he ſaid, perſecution had been the means of driving away the wealthieſt of their merchants, and their moſt induſtrious artificers; and this bill might alſo force the Engliſh Roman catholics to leave the kingdom, and carry eight or nine hundred thouſand pounds into foreign countries. The bill, however, paſſed; but lord Cowper, and ſeveral other lords, ſigned a proteſt againſt it. His lordſhip lived but a few months after; for he died at his ſeat at Colne Green, in Hertfordſhire, on the 10th of October, 1723; and on the 19th of that month, he was intered in Hertingfordbury church, in the ſame county. A Pindaric ode, occaſioned by his death, was publiſhed by Mr. Ambroſe Philips.

"The eloquence and abilities of earl Cowper were highly celebrated in his own time; he made a very conſpicuous figure at the bar; he was a diſtinguiſhed member of both houſes of parliament; his general character as a public man appears to have been extremely reſpectable; and in his conduct in the court of chancery he diſplayed great diſintereſtedneſs. He oppoſed the frequency and facility with which private bills paſſed in parliament; and refuſed the new year's gifts, which it had been cuſtomary to preſent to thoſe, who held the great ſeal. Dr Smollett obſerves, that England, by his death, "loſt a worthy noble man, who had twice diſcharged the office of lord chancellor, with equal diſcernment and integrity. He was profoundly ſkilled in the laws of his country; in his apprehenſion quick and penetrating; in his judgment clear and determinate. He poſſeſſed a manly eloquence: his manner was agreeable, and his deportment graceful." Mr. Tindal ſays of him, that he "was eminent for his integrity in the diſcharge of the office of lord chancellor, which he had twice filled. There may have been chancellors of more extenſive learning, but none of more knowledge in the laws of England. His judgment was quick, and yet ſolid. His eloquence manly, but flowing. His manner graceful and noble." Lord Cheſterfield, in his letters to his ſon, repreſents earl Cowper as more diſtinguiſhed, as a ſpeaker, by the elegance of his language, and the gracefulneſs of his manner, than by the force of his arguments. He ſays, "the late lord chancellor Cowper's ſtrength as an orator, lay by no means in his reaſoning, for he often hazarded very weak ones. But ſuch was the purity and elegancy of his ſtyle, ſuch the propriety and charms of his elocution, and ſuch the gracefulneſs of his action, that he never ſpoke without univerſal applauſe. The ears and the eyes gave him up the hearts and the underſtanding of the audience."

EXAMI-

XAMINATION of the HISTORIANS of the Admirable CRICHTON.

[From the ſame Work.]

THE wonderful and extrava-gant encomiums on the admirable Crichton which have been deliver d with the utmoſt confidence by his diffe-ent biographers, will render the fol-owing inveſtigation of the ſuppoſed acts on which their teſtimony is built, n acceptable preſent to our readers. For the particulars of theſe enco-iums we refer to Dr. Mackenzie's Writers of the Scot's Nation, vol. iii, *he eighty-firſt number of the Adven-urer; and to the account inſerted in Pennant's Firſt Tour in Scotland, vol.*

After introducing their various re-reſentations of the talents and exploits f their hero, our author obſerves,

"Such are the accounts which, by ſucceſſion of writers, and parti-ularly ſince the time of Macken-ie, have been given of the admira-le Crichton with little variation, nd ſcarcely with any degree of eſitation or reflection. It is, there-ore, an object of importance, to xamine ſomewhat more accurately nd extenſively than hath hitherto een done, what meaſure of faith s to be allotted to the different arts of the preceding narrative. And here it muſt be obſerved, that o credit can be granted to any acts which depend upon the ſole uthority of ſir Thomas Urquhart. ir John Hawkins, indeed, ſeems to hink that the ſtories told of Crich-on by this writer may be conſider-d as ſufficiently authenticated to all he purpoſes of hiſtorical informa-ion. Mr. Pennant, likewiſe, ſpeaks f him with approbation; and Dr. amuel Johnſon laid a ſtreſs on his eracity, in the account of Crich-on which he dictated to doctor Hawkſworth, and is inſerted in the eighty-firſt number of the Adventu-rer; of which account it may be obſerved, that it is only an elegant ſummary of the life written by Mackenzie. But with all deference to theſe reſpectable names, I muſt declare my full perſuaſion that ſir Thomas Urquhart is an author whoſe teſtimony to facts is totally unworthy of regard; and it is ſur-priſing that a peruſal of his works does not ſtrike every mind with this conviction. His productions are ſo inexpreſſibly abſurd and extrava-gant, that the only rational judg-ment which can be pronounced concerning him is, that he was lit-tle, if at all, better than a madman. To the character of his having been a madman muſt be added that of his being a liar. Severe as this term may be thought, I apprehend that a diligent examination of the treatiſe which contains the memo-rials concerning Crichton would ſhew that it is ſtrictly true. But of his total diſregard to truth there is inconteſtible evidence in another work of his, entitled the "True Pe-digree, and Lineal Deſcent of the moſt ancient and honourable Family the Urquharts in the Houſe of Cro-marty, from the Creation of the World until the Year of God, 1652" In this work it is almoſt incredible what a number of falſities he has invented, both with reſpect to names and facts. Perhaps a more flagrant inſtance of impoſture and fiction was never exhibited; and the ab-ſurdity of the whole pedigree is be-yond the power of words to ex-preſs. It can only be felt by thoſe who have peruſed the tract itſelf. Such a man, therefore, can juſtly be entitled

entitled to no degree of credit, especially when he has a purpose to serve, as was the case with sir Thomas Urquhart. His design was to exalt his own family and his own nation, at any rate. With respect to his own nation, there was no occasion for having recourse to fiction, in order to display the lustre of Scotland, in the eminent men whom it has produced in arms and literature. The pencil of truth alone would have been amply sufficient for that purpose.

"So far, therefore, as sir Thomas Urquhart's authority is concerned, the wonderful exhibitions of Crichton at Paris, his triumph at Rome, his combat with the gladiator, his writing an Italian comedy, his sustaining fifteen characters in the representation of that comedy, the extraordinary story of the amour which is described as the cause of his death, the nine months mourning for him at Mantua, and, the poems hung round his hearse to the quantity of Homer's works, must be regarded as in the highest degree doubtful, or rather as absolutely false. I cannot forbear mentioning two circumstances, which shew how much sir Thomas Urquhart was destitute of prudence, as well as of scrupulosity in his violations of truth. He says that the duke of Mantua was pleased to confer upon the young lady that was Crichton's mistress, and future wife, a pension of five hundred ducats a year; and that the prince also bestowed as much upon her, during all the days of his life, "which was, adds sir Thomas, but short; for he did not long enjoy himself after the cross fate of so miserable an accident." Now it is well known that Vincenzo di Gonzaga succeeded his father in the dukedom of Mantua, in 1587, and that he did not die till the year 1612; which was almo if not entirely, thirty years aft Crichton's decease. The other i stance of the imprudence of Thomas Urquhart in the contri ance of his fictions, occurs at t conclusion of his narrative, whe he asserts that the verity of the stor which he hath related concernin the incomparable Crichton, "ma be certified by two thousand me yet living, who have known him. *Two thousand men yet living!* th is, in 1652, sixty-nine or seven years after Crichton's death, f such was the time of sir Thomas publication. Our author wou have been sadly puzzled to colle together these two thousand livin witnesses, who could certify the v rity of his story.

"With regard, however, to th account which is given of the pr digious exertions of Crichton, bot corporal and mental, at Paris, Ma kenzie imagines that he has found full confirmation of them in a pa sage produced by him from the Di quisitiones of Stephen Pasquier, an which he considers as the testimon of an eye-witness. But the whole what has been built upon it, by Mac kenzie, and succeeding biographers is founded on a mistake. In th quotation from the Disquisitiones the name of Crichton is not men tioned, and the author doth not ap pear to have been personally presen at the exhibitions of the extraordi nary youth there described. Th expressions which are supposed t carry that meaning may well b referred not to the writer himself but to his countrymen the French before whom the young man is sai to have displayed his surprizing ta lents. But the discussion of thi point is totally needless, because th passage in question is not an origi nal authority. The book entitled

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phani Paſchieri Diſquiſitiones, is y an abridgement, in Latin, of quier's "Des Recherches de la nce." Now in this laſt work re is, indeed, an account of a nderful youth, ſuch as is related in ckenzie's quotation, and from ich that paſſage was formed But s wonderful youth, whoever he ght be, was not the admirable chton; for Paſquier, who does tell his name, expreſsly ſays, t he appeared in the year 1445. e evidence therefore, produced Mackenzie falls entirely to the ound. Indeed, if the ſtory of ichton's exploits at Paris had been e, no man was more likely to be uainted with them than Stephen ſquier, who lived at the time, and o would be fond enough of re- ding tranſactions ſo extraordina- It may farther be obſerved, t Thuanus, who was likewiſe a temporary, and who, in his own , is very particular in what re- es to learned men, makes no men- n of Crichton. The only autho- y for his having ever reſided in ance at all (ſir Thomas Urquhart cepted) is that of Dr. John hnſtone, who ſays, "Gallia Pec- excolit." But this amounts to proof of the truth of the tranſ- ions related by Urquhart. The ole which can be deduced from is, that Crichton, in the courſe of travels, might make ſome ſtay France, for the purpoſe of im- ovement. Even this, however, th not agree with the narration Imperialis, who informs us, at when troubles aroſe in Scotland account of religion, and queen ary fell into ſo many calamities, richton was ſent by his father di- ctly from that country to Ve- ce, as a place of ſecurity.

"It is acknowledged by ſir John wkins, that ſir Thomas Urquhart has produced no authorities in ſupport of his ſurprizing narrations. But this defect ſir John thinks is ſupplied in the life of Crichton which is given in Mr. Pennant's Tour. I am under the neceſſity of ſaying, that this is by no means the caſe. The article in Pennant, was not drawn up by that ingenious and learned gentleman, but is the tranſcript of a pamphlet that was printed ſome years ago at Aberdeen; and which pamphlet is nothing more than a re-publication, with a few verbal alterations, of the Life of Crichton written by Mackenzie. It doth not, therefore, furniſh a ſingle additional teſtimony in confirmation of ſir Thomas Urquhart's ſtories, excepting in the miſtaken inſtance from Paſquier. In other reſpects, it only borrows facts from ſir Thomas Urquhart, without eſtabliſhing them upon freſh proofs. It is obſervable, that the earlier biographers of Crichton had no knowledge of moſt of the tranſactions enlarged upon by this extravagant writer; for, if they had known them, they would have been eagerly diſpoſed to relate them, and to do it with every circumſtance of exaggeration. How much this was the character of Thomas Dempſter, with regard to his own countrymen, is ſufficiently underſtood, and hath frequently been remarked; and yet his account of Crichton is uncommonly modeſt, compared with thoſe of ſucceeding authors. The extravagance of Imperialis in reſpect to Crichton has already appeared. There ſeems indeed, to have been an univerſal tendency in the writers of this young Scotſman's life to produce wonder and aſtoniſhment. Mackenzie remarks, that Imperialis could not but know the truth of all, or at leaſt of moſt of the things he has related concerning Crichton,

ſince

ſince he lived upon the places in which they were tranſacted, and had them from an eye and ear witneſs, even his own father. It is, however, to be remembered that Imperialis's Muſeum Hiſtoricum was not publiſhed till 1640, nearly ſixty years after the events recorded by him happened; to which may be added, that the information he derived from his father was probably very imperfect. Imperialis the elder was not born till 1568, and conſequently was only thirteen years old when Crichton diſplayed his talents at Padua. What real dependence, therefore, could there be on the accuracy of the account given by a youth of that age? He could only relate, and perhaps from inadequate intelligence, the things which were talked of when he was a boy. Beſides, his authority is appealed to for no more than a ſingle fact, and that a doubtful one, ſince it does not accord with Manutius's narrative: and who ever heard of the famous philoſopher Arcangelus Mercenarius?

"The truth of the matter is, that, ſome ſlight circumſtances excepted, neither Dempſter nor Imperialis have produced any evidences of Crichton's extraordinary abilities beſides thoſe which are recorded by the younger Aldus Manutius. He, therefore, is to be regarded as the only living authority upon the ſubject. Manutius was contemporary with Crichton; he was cloſely connected with him in friendſhip; and he relates ſeveral things on his own perſonal knowledge. He is a poſitive and undoubted witneſs with reſpect to our young Scotſman's intellectual and literary exertions at Venice, and at Padua; and from him it is that our account of them is given above. Nevertheleſs, even Aldus Manutius is to be read with ſome degree of caution. Dedications are apt to aſſume the ſtyle of exaggeration, and this is the caſe with Manutius's dedication of the Paradoxa Ciceronis to Crichton. In addition to the general language of ſuch addreſſes he might be carried too far by his affection for his friend, which appears to have been very great: nor was the younger Aldus eminent for ſteadineſs and conſiſtency of character. It is even ſaid that, by his imprudencies, he fell into contempt and miſery. But independently of any conſiderations of this kind, it may be obſerved, that Manutius's narrative, previouſly to Crichton's arrival at Venice, could not be derived from perſonal knowledge. For that part of it (which is ſufficiently erroneous) he was probably indebted to Crichton himſelf. Neither does he appear to have been an eye witneſs of the whole of the diſputations, which were held at Padua; for ſpeaking of his young friend's praiſe of ignorance, he relates that thoſe who were preſent told him afterwards how much they were ſtruck with that oration. However, at the other diſputation, which laſted three days, Manutius ſeems certainly to have attended: for he concludes his account of it, with ſaying, that he was not only the adviſer, but the ſpectator of Crichton's wonderful conteſt. It is evident, however, from the dedication, that his extraordinary abilities were not univerſally acknowledged and admired. Some there were, who detracted from them, and were diſpleaſed with Manutius for ſo warmly ſupporting his reputation.

"As to the real cauſe and manner of our young Scotſman's death, both of them ſtill remain in ſome degree of obſcurity. That he was killed

ed in a rencounter at the car-
al of Mantua, is teſtified by too
ny authors to be reaſonably
ubted. But whether there was
t particular malignity on the part
Vincenzo di Gonzaga, which is
mmonly aſcribed to him, may be
nſidered as uncertain.

" One important method yet re-
ains, by which we may be enabled
form a judgment of Crichton's
nius, and that is, from a peruſal
the four poems of his which are
ll preſerved. It is, however, to
feared, that theſe will not exhi-
him in a very high point of
ew. Some fancy, perhaps, may
thought to be diſplayed in the
ngeſt of his poems, which was
ritten on occaſion of his approach
the city of Venice. He there re-
reſents a Naiad as riſing up before
m, and, by the order of the Muſes
id of Minerva, directing him
ow to proceed. But this is a ſenti-
ent which ſo eaſily preſents itſelf to
claſſical reader, that it can ſcarcely
e conſidered as deſerving the name
f a poetical invention. The three
ther poems of Crichton have ſtill
ſs to recommend them. Indeed,
is verſes will not ſtand the teſt of a
igid examination, even with re-
ard to quantity.

" What then, is the opinion,
which, on the whole, we are to form
f the admirable Crichton? It is
vident that he was a youth of ſuch
ively parts as excited great preſent
dmiration and high expectations
with regard to his future attain-
ments. He appears to have had a
ine perſon, to have been adroit in
his bodily exerciſes, to have poſſeſſ-
ed a peculiar facility in learning
languages, to have enjoyed a re-
markably quick and retentive me-
mory, and to have excelled in a
power of declamation, a fluency of
ſpeech, and a readineſs of re-
ply. His knowledge, likewiſe, was
probably very uncommon for his
years; and this, in conjunction with
his other qualities enabled him to
ſhine in public diſputation. But
whether his knowledge and learn-
ing were accurate or profound may
juſtly be queſtioned; and it may
equally be doubted whether he
would have ariſen to any extraordi-
nary degree of eminence in the li-
terary world. It will always be re-
flected upon with regret, that his
early and untimely death prevented
this matter from being brought to
the teſt of experiment.

" It is natural, on the preſent
occaſion, to recollect the caſe of John
Picus of Mirandula. He is cele-
brated for having been ſuch a pro-
digy of parts and literature as ſcarce-
ly ever exiſted; and yet his works
are not underſtood by any means to
correſpond with his once ſplendid
reputation.

" A circumſtance has been point-
ed out to us concerning Crichton,
which muſt not be omitted. He
was very much diſſatisfied (as ap-
pears from an incidental paſſage of
Manutius), with Socrates's manner
of diſputing againſt the ſophiſts.
Manutius expreſſes great ſurprize at
this ſentiment of his friend, but
ſurely without reaſon; for Crich-
ton was himſelf too like the ancient
ſophiſts not to be fond of their
character.

" I am under no apprehenſion
that any ſingle gentleman of Scot-
land will be diſpleaſed with the pre-
ſent article. That country, as hath
already been noticed, ſtands not in
need of falſhood to ſupport its re-
putation. It produced many emi-
nent ſcholars at the time in which
Crichton lived; and hath continued
to produce writers of the firſt order.
The names that adorn the preſent
age it is needleſs to mention. Lord
Buchan,

Buchan, in his memoir, lays no ſtreſs upon any account of Crichton's literary exhibitions, excepting that which is given by Manutius; and even Manutius is blamed by his lordſhip, for having had a great ſhare, by his own extravagance of language, in occaſioning the bombaſtic and intemperate praiſes which afterwards appeared of his young friend. It is to a reſpectable and learned gentleman of North tain, who doth not permit me honour of mentioning his name, I am indebted for ſeveral hints communications, by which I h been greatly aſſiſted in my en vours to furniſh a more comp and authentic narrative of the of the admirable Crichton than hitherto been written by any of biographers."

MEMOIRS OF ALEXANDER CRUDEN.

[From the ſame Work.]

"ALEXANDER Cruden, M. A. was the ſecond ſon of Mr. William Cruden, merchant, and one of the baillies of Aberdeen, an office ſimilar to that of alderman in England, and was born in the year 1701. He received his education in the grammar ſchool of Aberdeen, and was a ſchool-fellow with the late George earl Mariſchal, and James, afterwards the celebrated field mareſchal Keith, who, in the ſchool catalogue, were diſtinguiſhed by Dominus Georgius Keith, and magiſter Jacobus Keith. At the expiration of the uſual number of years, Mr. Cruden entered as ſtudent of Mariſchal College. From his cloſe attendance at the divinity lectures of Mr. Blackwell, father to the late principal Blackwell, he appears to have had thoughts of the church, as a profeſſion; and although prevented by the melancholy change of mind which took place about this time, he preſerved through the whole of life the impreſſion that he was appointed by Heaven to preach the Goſpel and reform mankind.

"It is uncertain to what that infanity which now appeared in his words and actions, and which with few intervals accompanied him to his grave, is to be attributed. So thought it was occaſioned by bite of a mad dog; but nothing be gathered from the hiſtory of t dreadful diſtemper which favo this opinion. Others derived madneſs from diſappointment i love affair, but it is uncertain wh ther this operated as a cauſe or co ſequence. Some uncommon c cumſtances with which it was tended, however, will apologize f making mention of it in this pla The object of his affection was t daughter of a clergyman of Abe deen. Cruden courted her wi enthuſiaſm and perſeverance, b the lady thought proper to reje his addreſſes, and his behaviour b coming outrageous and troubl ſome, her father ordered his doo to be ſhut againſt him. This i creaſed his paſſion, and his friend ſoon found it neceſſary to confi him for a conſiderable time in pr ſon. The young lady in the mea while became pregnant, which wa with too much reaſon attributed t a criminal intercourſe with her ow brother. She was ſent into th country, and never returned. Tha Mr. Cruden ſhared in the genera horror which this event produce

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be eaſily believed. He never tioned the name of the unhap- woman but with the bittereſt f and moſt tender compaſſion.

On his releaſe from confine- t, he gave up the purſuit of tudies at Aberdeen, and reſolved ave his native country. In the 722 he came to London, and aged in ſeveral families as private r to young perſons at ſchool, or were intended for the univerſity. his employment he ſpent ſome s in the Iſle of Man. In the 1732, we find him in London n, as corrector of the preſs and kſeller. His ſhop was under the yal Exchange. While in this ation, an incident happened, ch Mr. Cruden numbered a- ag the moſt remarkable occur- ces of his life. A gentleman n Aberdeen, who wiſhed to ſerve den, offered to introduce him to merchant near the Royal Ex- nge, a near relation of the ng lady above mentioned. When y knocked at the door of this rchant's houſe, it was opened by young lady herſelf, who, un- own to Mr. Cruden, or his nd, had found an aſylum here . Cruden ſtarted back, with vifi- ſigns of wonder and agony, and ſping his friend's hand, exclaim- wildly, "Ah! ſhe has ſtill her e black eyes." It is perhaps un- ceſſary to add, that his hopes of imacy in this family were now at end. He did not then, nor ever er, enter the houſe, nor court the quaintance of its owner, who was leed a younger brother of the lady.

"The year after he began to mpile the work which entitles him be ranked among the friends of erature, and conſequently to a ace in theſe records. He had ng meditated "A complete Con- rdance of the Holy Scriptures of the Old and New Teſtament." If the merit of labour only be given to this work, it muſt be acknowledged that it required labour to which it is impoſſible to make any addition, and perſeverance that knows no interval. Mr. Cruden was well qualified for ſuch an undertaking; for habits of induſtry were familiar to him, and his inclination led him to form the plan and indeed to execute the whole, before he had received any encouragement from the public. The firſt edition was publiſhed in the year 1737. The preface explains his plan and his views in publiſhing. The book was dedicated to queen Caroline, who had given the author ſome reaſon to expect a gratuity on its being preſented to her. But a very few days before its publication, the queen died, and Cruden loſt his patroneſs. His affairs were now embarraſſed; the time he had beſtowed on his work was not productive of immediate profit, and his reward was no longer to be expected; for that he did expect a reward from her majeſty, appeared by viſible ſymptoms of the keeneſt diſappointment. He diſpoſed of his ſtock in trade, and ſhut up his ſhop. Without employment, without friends, and without hope, he became again a prey to his phrenetic diſorder, and it was found neceſſary to confine him in a private mad-houſe at Bethnal Green. As ſoon as he was releaſed he took revenge on his keepers, and on thoſe who were the cauſe of his confinement, by publiſhing a pamphlet, entitled "The London Citizen exceedingly injured, giving an account of his Adventures during the time of his ſevere and long Campaign at Bethnal Green, for nine weeks and ſix days, the Citizen being ſent thither in March 1738, by

Robert

Robert Wightman a notoriously conceited whimsical Man, where he was chained, hand-cuffed, strait-waistcoated, and imprisoned, &c. &c." He also commenced an action against Dr. Monro, and other defendants, which was tried in Westminster-hall, July 17, 1739, when a verdict was given in favour of the defendants. After the verdict was given, Cruden said, "I trust in God." The chief justice, sir William Lee, replied, "I wish you had trusted more in God, and not have come hither." Mr. Cruden had recourse again to his pen, and published an account of the trial with remarks on the œconomy of private madhouses, which he dedicated to the late king.

"After this he lived chiefly by correcting the press, and under his inspection several editions of the Greek and Roman classics were published with great accuracy. He rendered himself useful to the booksellers and printers in various ways. His manners were inoffensive: he was always to be trusted, and performed his engagements with strict fidelity. In these occupations he employed several years, until the return of his disorder obliged his friends a third time to shut him up in a madhouse. When he was released, he published his case with the whimsical title of "The Adventures of Alexander the Corrector."—Three parts afterwards appeared under the same title. It is not easy to characterise them. They are a faithful transcript of a wild mind, various, whimsical, serious, and jocose. His madness was sui generis. We find nothing like it in the annals of medicine, nor can it be accounted for on any known principles of physiology. The faculty are seldom called in, and seldom attend to cases like that of Cruden; and the world e laughed at, or pitied him; i worst paroxysms it appears tha was perfectly harmless, and more than probable that the se ty of confinement unnecessarily, ed to his disorder.

"In September 1753, when released, he undertook what more difficult to effect than all former attempts. He endeavo to persuade one or two of his fri who had confined him, to submi be imprisoned in Newgate, a compensation for the injuries t had brought upon him. To sister, he proposed, what he thou very mild terms; she was to h her choice of four prisons; N gate, Reading and Aylesbury ga and the prison in Windsor Ca When he found that his pers sions were of no avail, he commen an action against her and th others, and stated his damages 10,000l. The cause was tried February, 1754, and a verdict g en in favour of the defenda Cruden had now no remedy b an appeal to the public: accordi ly he published an account of t trial in a six-penny pamphlet, de cated to the king. He went to James's Palace to present it, h was prevented, and denied the h nour of knighthood, to which, this time, he aspired.

"His phrenzy, indeed, was n at its height. He called himself "Alexander the Corrector," a gave out that he was commission by Heaven to reform the manne of the age, particularly to resto the due observance of the Sabbat To raise the public belief in his f vour, he produced and printed ce tain prophecies of eminent min sters and others, all anonyinous, with the initials only of name The substance of these propheci

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that " Mr. Cruden was to be cond Joſeph, to be a great man court, and to perform great gs for the ſpiritual Iſrael in this l Egypt, &c." Furniſhed with credentials, he went to Ox- and Cambridge, and exhorted ladies and gentlemen, whom he d in the public walks on the ath, to go home and keep that holy. But his advice was not omed as he wiſhed, and on occaſion he narrowly eſcaped oral chaſtiſement for having too bold in his addreſſes to a g lady, who happened to be ing with a ſtudent in Clare- walks. He generally followed advice with a denunciation of al wrath in caſe of non-com- ce.

On his return to London his ition increaſed; for ambition he inly indulged from the idea he was deſtined to a ſuperior on in life; and the general elec- approaching, Mr. Cruden de- ined to ſtand candidate for the of London, and in a common- was nominated by Mr. Sheriff ty, whom he had importuned o this office for him. What be thought very remarkable, Cruden had the ſatisfaction to everal hands held up for him; he declined the poll, which was uted by the other party, and equently loſt his election. It is ely poſſible to record this event hiſtorical gravity; but it is hy of notice that he had actu- received promiſes of ſupport, was comforted by the reflection, ſays himſelf, that if he had not ands, he had the hearts of the ens. His advertiſements are mens of his manner of ſpeak- and writing concerning himſelf, his phrenzy was at its height. t the ſame time he paid his addreſſes to a lady, but lament- ed that in this, as in every other great deſign, he could not command ſucceſs.

" Amidſt this ſeries of wild at- tempts and undertakings, Mr. Cru- den devoted his beſt hours to ſtudy. He was continually making additions to the Concordance, the ſecond edi- tion of which was publiſhed in 1761. At this time he was corrector of the preſs to the Public Advertiſer, pub- liſhed by the late Mr. Woodfall. He laboured, indeed, inceſſantly at ſome employment or other; and appor- tioned his time ſo judiciouſly that only when he appeared in public, could he be ſaid to do nothing. The buſineſs of the printing office was rarely over before one o'clock in the morning, when the paper was put to preſs. Cruden ſeldom ſlept more than four or five hours, and before ſix in the morning he might always be found turning over his Bible, adding, amending, and im- proving his Concordance with great and ſcrupulous attention: at this he continued till evening, when he went to the printing office. This aſſiduous attention to uſeful objects, it was hoped, would reſtore his mind to a ſtate of calm regularity, and in ſome degree this was the caſe. His next appearance in pub- lic will be ſeen with ſatisfaction.

" In 1762, one Richard Potter, a ſailor, was tried and capitally con- demned at the Old Bailey for forg- ing, or rather uttering, knowing it to be forged, a ſeaman's will, a crime which then, as well as now, is rarely pardoned. It appeared, however, from the evidence, that Potter was a poor illiterate creature, the tool of another, and ignorant of the nature of the crime he commit- ted. Fortunately for him, Mr. Cruden happened to be in court, and was ſo firmly convinced that

Potter was a proper object of the royal clemency, that he determined to interfere in his behalf. To be more fully satisfied, however, he visited Potter in Newgate, examined him, and found that his crime was the crime of ignorance, without any evil intention on his part. But it was not to save him from the sentence of the law only, that Cruden meditated. He prayed with him, exhorted him, taught him the principles of religion, and gave him a proper sense of the wickedness of his past life, and the enormity of the crime for which he was condemned: in a word, he made a convert of a poor wretch, who had scarcely ever heard of a God. He then began to devise means to obtain a pardon, and, improbable as it appeared, his repeated applications succeeded, and Potter's sentence was changed into transportation. Mr. Cruden accompanied his petition to the earl of Hallifax, then secretary of state, with a copy of the second edition of the Concordance, to which was prefixed an elegant Latin dedication to his lordship. The tenderness with which Mr. Cruden visited, exhorted, fed and cloathed his pupil, the anxiety he felt, and the unceasing importunity of his applications to every person that could be useful to Potter, deserve to be remembered with approbation, and to reconcile us to all his oddities. A particular account of the whole affair was published the same year, entitled "The History of Richard Potter, &c. &c."

"The success Mr. Cruden had enjoyed in reforming this poor criminal induced him to continue his labours among the other felons in Newgate. He visited them every day, gave them New Testaments, Catechisms, &c. catechised them, and bestowed small pecuniary rewards on the most apt scholars. His labour, however, was lost, for books were soon exchanged for money, and the money spent in drinking; and Cruden discontinued the practice, when he found it produced no better effects. A regard for the eternal welfare of his fellow-creatures was a predominant feature in his character. He was peculiarly elated when he had succeeded in rescuing any poor creature from the barbarity of ignorance, or the practice of wickedness. Of this we have another instance, but at what period it happened cannot now be remembered. Returning one Sunday evening from a place of worship, he accidentally met with a man, whose looks betrayed anxiety, sorrow, melancholy, and, as Cruden imagined despair. He immediately accosted the man, and drew from him a confession, that the extreme poverty of his family, and other causes had driven him to the desperate resolution of committing suicide. Mr. Cruden expostulated with him, displayed the wickedness of his intention, and administered such friendly consolation, accompanied with pecuniary assistance, and a promise of future support, that the poor man became chearful, resigned, and hopeful. In such cases Mr. Cruden delighted.

"At the time when the disputes between Mr. Wilkes and the government agitated the nation, Mr. Cruden wrote a small pamphlet against that gentleman, whom he never could hear named with patience. He testified his aversion to him in a way peculair to himself, by effacing No. 45, wherever he found it chalked on doors or window-shutters. His instrument was a little piece of sponge, which he carried in his pocket, partly for this purpose, and partly that no words, offen-

good morals, might be allowed to disgrace the walls, doors, &c. of the metropolis. This employment rendered his walks through the city very tedious.

"In the year 1769 he visited Aberdeen, the place of his nativity, and in a public hall gave a lecture on the cause of reformation; contended that he was born to reform the age, and exhorted all ranks to amend their ways. There was nothing in this advice improper or absurd—but Mr. Cruden's manner was always at variance with his matter, and he met with no better success here than in other places. Many anecdotes are related of his labours here. Among others, he printed the fourth Commandment in the form of a hand bill, and distributed them to all persons without distinction, whom he met in the streets on Sunday. To a young clergyman whom Cruden thought too conceited and modern, he very gravely and formally presented a little catechism, used by children in Scotland, called the "Mother's Catechism" dedicated to the Young and Ignorant. For young people he always had his pockets full of religious tracts, such as Guyse's Sermons, &c. which he bestowed with pleasure on such as promised to read them.

"After residing about a year at Aberdeen he returned to London, and took lodgings in Camden-street, Islington, where he died. In the morning of Thursday, November 1, 1770, he was found dead on his knees, apparently in the posture of prayer. He had complained for some days of an asthmatic affection, but it did not seem attended with danger. As he never married, he bequeathed his moderate savings to his relations, except a certain sum, to the city of Aberdeen to be employed in the purchase of religious books for the use of the poor; and he founded a bursary (or exhibition) of five pounds sterling per annum, to assist in educating a student at the Marischall College. This bursary was to be obtained on certain terms specified in his will, one of which was a perfect acquaintance with Vincent's Catechism.

"In private life Mr. Cruden was courteous and affable; prone to give his opinions, and firm in all his religious persuasions. To the poor he was as liberal of his money as of his advice: he seldom, indeed, separated the one from the other. His concern for them must have been sincere, for interest he could have none; and his generosity must have been pure, for he often gave more than he retained for his own uses. To such young men, especially from Aberdeen, as were recommended to him, he acted like a father, or affectionate friend and tutor. Among men of genius he cannot be classed: but in his greatest labours he experienced no fatigue, and the utility of his literay projects will not admit of a dispute. His Concordance was his favourite work; and it is probable that the attention he bestowed upon it was favourable to the state of his mind, although it could not altogether prevent the return of that phrenzy which gave a certain colour to all his actions, and suggested to him those whimsical plans of reformation, and those hopes of superiority, which were as useless to himself as unprofitable to others. In conversation and in writing his style was stiff and awkward. He does not appear to have had a prompt memory, and his words came slowly. In religion he professed Calvinism, as appears from the definitions in his Concordance of the words *grace*, *faith*, *predestination*, &c. But it must be added,

that had not an intollerant ſpirit, and often with ſeverity he cenſured the principles and practices of narrow-minded men. During the greateſt part of his life in London, he joined in communion with Dr. Guyſe's Independent Meeting; but about the year 1761-2, when age and infirmities obliged the doctor to reſign, and Mr. Stafford ſucceeded him, Mr. Cruden attended Dr. Conder on the Paved Stones, Moorfields, and went to Dr. Guyſe's Meeting on the firſt Sunday of every month only, when the ſacrament was adminiſtered."

PARTICULARS of the LIFE of Dr. LEECHMAN.

[Extracted from Dr. WODROW's Narrative, prefixed to the Firſt Vol. of Dr. LEECHMAN's Sermons.]

"DR. William Leechman was one of the few whom Divine Providence ſometimes raiſes from an humble to a diſtinguiſhed and uſeful ſtation in life, chiefly by the influence of eminent talents and amiable virtues. It may not be unpleaſing to trace the ſteps of his progreſs. To his numerous friends and ſcholars, who knew him thoroughly, and to the world, who have formed a favourable judgment of him from his writings, ſome account of his life may perhaps be acceptable; of the early and retired part of it little can now be recovered. Any thing, however, worthy of notice, which hath come to the knowledge of the writer of theſe memoirs, ſhall be faithfully marked.

Dr. Leechman was born in the year 1706. He was the ſon of William Leechman, a famer, who lived in the pariſh of Dolphinton, in the ſhire of Lanerk, and always maintained a character reſpectable for piety and integrity. His ſon learned the rudiments of the languages at the pariſh-ſchool of Dolphinton, under the care of Mr. Henderſon, who was afterwards a clergyman. He completed his education at the Univerſity of Edinburgh, not without ſome aſſiſtance from the family of Baillie of Jerviſwood, a gentleman of note in that country. The family conſidered themſelves as under an obligation to Mr. Leechman's father, who, when a young man, at the head of two or three of his companions, had the ſpirit to take down one of the quarters of Mr. Robert Baillie, affixed to the Tolbooth of Lanerk, by the orders of the privy-council, and to give it a decent interment.

"At the College of Edinburgh Mr. Leechman diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his proficiency in the different branches of literature to which he applied. This ſoon procured him the notice and friendſhip of Mr. Bowie, miniſter of Dolphinton, and Mr. Bradfute, miniſter of Dunſyre, who was himſelf an excellent claſſical ſcholar. Theſe two reverend gentlemen recommended him to Mr. Geddes of Kirkurd, in the ſhire of Tweedale, as a proper tutor to his eldeſt ſon."

"Mr. Leechman began his theological ſtudies about the year 1724, and continued to proſecute them under Dr. William Hamilton, then profeſſor of divinity at Edinburgh, a man much eſteemed at that time in Scotland, for the wiſdom and good temper with which conducted the debates

oates of the general aſſembly, and no eſs eſteemed for his learning, judgment, and candour as a teacher."

"After Mr. Geddes had no further occaſion for a tutor, the Rev. Mr. Bradfute again recommended Mr. Leechman as a proper perſon to ſuperintend the education of a young gentleman in Renfrewſhire, Mr. Mure of Caldwell, in which recommendation Mr. Bradfute was joined by Mr. Alexander Dunlop, Greek profeſſor at Glaſgow. This was Mr. Leechman's firſt introduction into the weſt country, deſtined to be afterward the principal ſcene of his uſefulneſs; and it broke off, in a great meaſure, his connexion with the few friends he had acquired in the eaſt and ſouth. Yet he never forgot his obligations to Mr. Bradfute, but retained a warm ſenſe of them throughout the whole courſe of his life. Long after the death of his benefactor, he was ever ready to do the moſt friendly offices in his power to his children and grand-children.

"It was in the ſummer of the year 1727, that Mr. Leechman was introduced into the family of Caldwell, where he had an opportunity of diſplaying the innate goodneſs of his heart in different ways. Mr. Mure's grand-uncle was then alive, confined to his bed, and who ſoon became ſo fond of his new gueſt, as to prefer his company and converſation to that of all his other friends. Mr. Mure himſelf was then very young, but equally promiſing, in point of amiable diſpoſitions and abilities, with Mr. Geddes. So that Mr. Leechman was very fortunate in meeting with two young minds ſo ſuſceptible of inſtruction and improvement; and they no leſs fortunate in meeting with proper culture under the care of a man ſo well qualified to beſtow it."

"The family of Caldwell lived during the ſummer and harveſt months in the country; and during the reſt of the year, at Glaſgow, for the ſake of the education of the children. There Mr. Leechman had an opportunity of ſeeing the method of teaching at another Univerſity, and attending any of the lectures he pleaſed, eſpecially thoſe of profeſſor Hutcheſon, who was brought to that college in the year 1720. His lectures on natural theology, ethics, juriſprudence, and on the evidences of Chriſtianity, were a valuable ſource of improvement to the more advanced as well as to the younger ſtudents. Even his converſation, various, cheerful, and animated to a high degree, was not only an agreeable entertainment, but very inſtructive and improving to thoſe who had the happineſs of enjoying it. His colleague, profeſſor Dunlop, was not much behind him in learning, talents, and benevolence. Theſe two eminent men had the diſcernment to diſtinguiſh Mr. Leechman's modeſt merit, and to prognoſticate his future advancement. They admited him into all the familiarity of friendſhip".

"About the beginning of the year 1731, Mr. Leechman offered himſelf for probationary trials to the preſbytery of Paiſley, within whoſe bounds he reſided: and after delivering ſix different kinds of diſcourſes preſcribed to him, and going through the other uſual pieces of trial with approbation, he was, in the month of October, licenſed to preach the Goſpel by that Preſbytery. He continued a preacher, without any proſpect of preferment, for no leſs than five years. This, however, was certainly on the whole a favourable circumſtance in his lot; for, unembarraſſed with the cares and

duties of a fixed charge, he was at liberty to oblige his clerical friends, by preaching for them occaſionally; and he had full leiſure in the very ſpring of life, to purſue his own ſtudies, both in the country and at Glaſgow, with all poſſible advantage."

"In the year 1736, the pariſh of Beith, where the family of Caldwell uſually reſided, became vacant. The right of preſentation was veſted in the Eglinton family; but the late counteſs, Suſannah, waving the exerciſe of that right, recommended Mr. Leechman, in a letter to the Preſbytery of Irvine. And in conſequence of this and the unanimous call or concurrence of all ranks in the pariſh, he was, in the month of October, ordained miniſter of Beith.

"In this populous and extenſive charge he continued about ſeven years, living ſometimes in his manſe, where he had ſervants, but for the moſt part at Caldwell."

"In October 1740, Mr. Leechman was elected moderator of a meeting of the provincial ſynod at Irvine, and according to cuſtom opened the following meeting at Glaſgow with a ſermon to the clergy, *on the Temper, Character, and Duty of a Miniſter of the Goſpel.* Among the very many ſermons and charges publiſhed on this ſubject, few perhaps will bear a fair compariſon with this firſt attempt of a young miniſter, in reſpect of the variety of uſeful advices crowded into a ſmall compaſs, and perhaps alſo the nervous language, and the ſtriking, yet delicate manner in which theſe advices are given. In the beginning of 1743, he publiſhed a much longer ſermon, *on Prayer.* Both theſe publications drew a more than ordinary attention at firſt, and run through a great number of editions afterwards.

"In July that year, he married Mrs. Bridget Balfour, of the family of Pilrig, near Edinburgh; a young lady very worthy of his choice, qualified by the ſedate, amiable, and generous turn of her mind, to value and enjoy the advantages and endearments of his friendſhip, which ſhe did to the laſt day of his life; and qualified alſo, by the great propriety of her conduct, and the eaſy elegance of her manners, to do honour to herſelf and her huſband in the ſuperior ſtations in which they were deſtined afterwards to appear.

"Soon after his marriage, he was waited on by two gentlemen from Ireland, deputed by a reſpectable diſſenting congregation in Belfaſt, to invite him to be their miniſter, and to offer him a better ſalary than he enjoyed at Beith. This offer Dr. Hutcheſon adviſed him to accept; but profeſſor Dunlop, and his other friends at Glaſgow joined by Mrs. Leechman's relations at Edinburgh, perſuaded him to decline. Mr. Dunlop always wiſhed to get him into the college, and it was not long before he had an opportunity; for in the end of that year the theological chair became vacant. The election was in the hands of the faculty; that is the court of ordinary profeſſors, who, in ſome former important queſtions, had been accuſtomed to divide into two nearly equal parties. In the one party, Mr. Craig, then a miniſter in the city, had ſome who preferred him to all others; but he, from modeſty, friendſhip, and a regard to the intereſts of religion, refuſed to interfere at all; ſo that this party ſoon united in favour of Mr. Leechman. The other party pitched upon Mr. John Maclaurin

aclaurin, one of the miniſters of laſgow; a candidate highly re-ectable for his learning and pie-, and well qualified for the ſta-on, had he had the *ſame apt-ſs to teach* with his rival. The eople of the city and neighbour-ood intereſted themſelves warmly the fate of this election; as was indeed an event of no ſmall nſequence to the future education their clergy. They befriended e one or the other candidate, ac-rding to their acquaintance with im, and their opinion of the con-rmity of his religious ſentiments their own. Mr. Leechman had e good wiſhes of all the hearers his friend Craig, who conſider-d themſelves as the people of taſte nd education; and Mr. Maclaurin e good wiſhes of a much larger ody, even all the reſt of the own.

"On the day fixed for the de-iſion of this matter, the votes of he members of the faculty were qually divided, and Mr. Leech-nan obtained the divinity chair by he caſting vote of the then lord ector, George Bogle, eſq. of Daldowie, a worthy gentleman in he neighbourhood, who till the end of his life felt much ſatisfac-ion in what he had done that day.

"Againſt this election, the diſ-appointed party made a formal proteſt; not with a view to over-turn it before the court of ſeſſion, for it was ſtrictly legal, but in the hope of fruſtrating the effect of it, by the aſſiſtance of the eccle-ſiaſtical courts of Scotland. Living in habits of intimacy with a few clergymen in that neighbour-hood, they flattered themſelves that their influence over the whole body was greater than they found it to be. Accordingly, when Dr. Hutcheſon, and Dr. Hamilton pro-feſſor of anatomy, appeared, Janu-ary 3, 1744, at the firſt meeting of the preſbytery of Irvine, under whoſe juriſdiction Mr. Leechman and his pariſh were, and laid be-fore that preſbytery, the minute of his election, requeſting them to take the proper ſteps in conſequence of it; another profeſſor, of the oppoſite party, veſted with a com-miſſion from the minority, made his appearance likewiſe, and at-tempted to ſtop any procedure, un-der the pretext of a controverted election. But the court found that this gentleman had no title to appear, having neither a proper commiſſion from the college, nor the pariſh, the only parties con-cerned. They agreed therefore to looſe Mr. Leechman from his pa-rochial connection, and gave him up to the college, with an am-ple and honourable teſtimony of their approbation of his abilities, doctrine, and life, during the time he had lived among them.

"But the very next day he ex-perienced a different treatment, when, with the deputies of the col-lege, he preſented himſelf before the preſbytery of Glaſgow. They re-fuſed to enrol him as a member of their court, and to allow him to take the ſteps the law had ap-pointed previous to his teaching. This obliged him to proteſt and complain of their conduct to the ſynod: after which he began, and continued to teach in the college during the remaining part of the ſeſſion.

"At their meeting in February, the majority of that preſbytery, under the direction of a zealous country clergyman, took a very violent ſtep, with a view to eject the new profeſſor. They reſolved to commence a proceſs of hereſy

againſt him. Whatever their motives might be, the attempt itſelf had the moſt direct tendency imaginable to hurt his reputation and uſefulneſs, and to bring him under a general odium. A proſecution of this kind had been carried, on, about ſixteen years before, againſt a very learned profeſſor in the ſame chair, and had ended, in his ſuſpenſion from public teaching. To pave the way for the preſent proceſs, the preſbytery appointed a numerous committee to examine Mr. Leechman's ſermon on Prayer, lately publiſhed. This committee, after various meetings and much deliberation, produced a paper of remarks, as they called it, conſiſting of eight articles of what they deemed heretical omiſſions. The purport of the whole went to charge Mr. Leechman, with having laid too little ſtreſs on the merit of the ſatisfaction and interceſſion of our bleſſed Saviour, as the ſole ground of our acceptance with God in prayer; and with teaching Chriſtians to look for pardon and acceptance upon other grounds than this which, they inſinuated, Mr. L——— conſidered as a circumſtance ſuperfluous or foreign to prayer. To each of their remarks, or objections, the profeſſor gave in written anſwers, vindicating himſelf, and pointing out the miſtakes of the committee in a modeſt, yet ſufficiently ſpirited manner. But theſe anſwers, as might be expected, were neither ſatisfactory to the committee, nor to the preſbytery, under whoſe authority they acted.

"The ſermon itſelf, which bore on the face of it ſtrong marks of a devout heart, as well as of a highly cultivated underſtanding, had been much read and admired. In the ſpace of a few months it had undergone a ſecond edition. And this unexpected attack on the author, viſibly calculated to raiſe a ſpirit of bigotry in the common people againſt him, ſoon rouſed the attention and indignation of many of the conſcientious friends of religion and learning in that quarter, to whom Mr. Leechman was not perſonally known. It drew together a great number of the clergy from the moſt diſtant corners of that large ſynod, together with ſeveral gentlemen of rank, who took their ſeats with them as elders, which they had not done for many years before. The court aſſembled at Glaſgow in the beginning of April, and, in conſequence of Mr. Leechman's complaint, thought proper to call for the papers, and to take the buſineſs entirely out of the hands of the inferior court, who ſhewed great reluctance to part with it; having reſolved to continue their ſittings, and to hang up the cauſe for ſome time to the public view. The ſynod appointed a particular diet to judge and decide it: in which the remarks, anſwers, and every thing referred to in both, were read, and read a ſecond time article by article. Every member was allowed to propoſe what further objections occurred to him, and the profeſſor allowed to anſwer him, if he could, viva voce, which was done in ſeveral inſtances. On the whole, the ſynod almoſt unanimouſly found "Profeſſor Leechman's anſwers to the remarks or objections made by the committee of the preſbytery of Glaſgow, to be fully ſatisfying, and ſufficient to remove any offence conceived; and found no reaſon to charge the ſaid profeſſor with any unſoundneſs in the faith, expreſſed in the paſſages of the ſermon complained of." The profeſſor thanked the reverend and honourable members of the court for the time and pains they had beſtowed

owed in doing juſtice to his charac-
r; hoping that, through the help
God, he ſhould, in the future ex-
ciſe of his office, juſtify the favour-
le opinion they ſeemed to have
rmed of him."

"The preſbytery had at the be-
nning made an appeal to the ge-
eral aſſembly. That court, when
e cauſe came before them, wiſely
ferred it to a ſelect committee, and
lopted their judgment without a
te. They found, "That the
nod of Glaſgow and Air had ſuf-
ient reaſon to take into their own
nds the cognizance of the enquiry
uching the ſermon." They con-
med the judgment paſſed by that
nod, and prohibited the preſby-
ry of Glaſgow to commence, or
rry on any further or other pro-
edings againſt the profeſſor, on ac-
unt of that ſermon."

"Mr. Leechman being now at
ll liberty to exert his talents on
public theatre, his character, both
a preacher and a profeſſor, ſhone
it the brighter, after this cloud was
ſſipated. No further attempts
ere made to darken his reputation,
d to diſturb him in the exerciſe of
s duty. Some of thoſe who had
ppeared his keen adverſaries in the
urch proceſs lived with him after-
ards on terms of ſincere friendſhip:
en the prejudices of the common
ople in Glaſgow gradually ſubſid-
; ſo that he came to be conſidered
ere, as he had always been in
ery other place, a very acceptable
eacher.

"But his time was chiefly employ-
, at the begining, in preparing
ctures for the divinity hall. Dr.
utcheſon, who ſpoke Latin with
ore fluency and elegance than moſt
en, was the firſt who introduced
e cuſtom of lecturing in Engliſh
to that univerſity. Mr. Leech-
an followed his example; and though his great modeſty prevented him from ever attaining to the eaſy and ſpirited manner of that celebrated profeſſor, who lectured, to appearance, extempore, walked up and down in his claſs-room, and ſpoke with an animation of countenance, voice, and geſture which inſtantly went to the heart; though Mr. Leechman made an almoſt conſtant uſe of his papers, under the diſadvantage of being very near ſighted; yet his lectures were alſo judicious, liberal, ſometimes uncommonly ſtriking, and equally reliſhed by the great multitude of ſtudents who attended them.

"Doctor Leechman continued in the theological chair ſeventeen years, cutting off, from time to time, ſuch parts of his lectures as were leaſt valuable: enriching them with ſomething new or more important, ſuggeſted by the train of reading in which he was engaged, or by his own fertile mind: eſpecially vindicating and eſtabliſhing the grand truths of natural and revealed religion againſt the principal objections made to them by Mr. Hume, lord Bolingbroke, Voltaire, and other ſceptical writers, whoſe books made their firſt appearance during that period, and, from the literary reputation of the authors, attracted more of the public attention than they deſerved. Dr. Leechman was, indeed, qualified, beyond moſt men, to be a ſucceſsful teacher and defender of truth. His love of it was pure and warm: yet this generous warmth was ſtrictly guarded by the modeſty of his own mind, and never betrayed him into any harſh or indecent language towards thoſe whoſe opinions he could not but conſider as hoſtile to truth, and to the beſt intereſts of mankind. He was as free, as any man I ever knew, from bigotry, or an improper attachment to any ſyſ-

tems

tems of theology of philoſophy, that of Hutcheſon his beloved friend not excepted. He was, to all appearance, equally candid with the juſtly-admired Lardner: and though his reading or learning was conſiderably inferior to that prodigy of knowledge, yet it was ſtill very extenſive, eſpecially in the hiſtorical, moral, and theological branches. He had, perhaps more original genius and force of mind than Lardner. He had a moſt remarkable talent of ſelecting what was moſt important or moſt ſtriking on every ſubject he handled; ſo that his arguments were never ſpecious but ſolid; not founded on ſpeculations, but facts; urged at the ſame time with a degree of warmth, which carried the hearers along with him; for they were addreſſed equally to the judgment and to the heart. In fine, the exertion of theſe diſtinguiſhed talents was ſtimulated and heightened by a ſpirit of manly devotion, which he never concealed, but gave way to on all proper occaſions: and though the effects of this were tranſient on many, yet it left ſuch impreſſions on ſome minds as will never be entirely effaced.

"Dr. Leechman's fame and ſucceſs as a teacher was ſuch as might be expected from ſuch talents and virtues. The firſt prejudices raiſed againſt him were ſoon forgotten. The divinity hall at Glaſgow, was crowded in his time with a greater number of ſcholars than any other in Scotland. His labours there contributed to increaſe the riſing reputation of that univerſity, and did eminent ſervice to the church, eſpecially by inſpiring young minds with an ardour for truth, cheriſhing a ſpirit of inquiry after it, and diffuſing rational and liberal ſentiments of religion in that corner of the country. Even the young men deſigned for the miniſtry among the ſeceders, who are conſidered as the moſt rigid ſect in Scotland, attended Dr. Leechman's lectures in conſiderable numbers; and thus manifeſted a thirſt for knowledge and a liberality of mind, which did them much honour. Many ingenious young men from England and Ireland attended his lectures, and improved under his tuition, ſeveral of whom have ſince diſtinguiſhed themſelves both among the diſſenters and in the church. His numerous ſcholars, however they might differ in their ſentiments of ſpeculative theology and church government, were all cordially united in their affection and veneration for their old maſter, imbibed early, and retained to the laſt."

"Dr. Leechman was ſlender in his make, but had firm nerves, and a ſtrong, clear, commanding voice. His health was on the whole good, but needed the guard of ſtrict temperance and exerciſe during the ſummer months; and was withal, at times, ſo precarious as to alarm his friends. In his youth he was thought to be in the laſt ſtage of a conſumption, and recovered beyond expectation. At Glaſgow, he was ſubject to frequent coughs, which did not however prevent him from ſtudying hard, and teaching conſtantly; till about the beginning of the year 1759, when his cough increaſed, accompanied with hectic fits. This ended in his ſpitting up an impoſthume from his breaſt. During this illneſs he taught as long as he was able, in the public hall, and afterwards in a large room in his own houſe, till he was forced to ſtop in the middle of a lecture; yet he ſtill continued to meet with his ſtudents and to hear their diſ-

courſes

rſes, after he was unable to ſpeak them any longer than a few mi-tes himſelf.

" In the beginning of that ſum-r, his phyſicians ſent him to Briſ-. Mrs. Leechman and he ſet out the view of going by London, h many introductory letters; but grew ſo ill on the road, that it s thought neceſſary to go to Briſ- without delay. He received eat benefit from the uſe of the ters, living, during the ſummer d harveſt months, at the village Clifton-hill, where they met with ich civility and attention from ſe-ral gentlemen and clergymen in at neighbourhood."

" After the death of Mr. Neil ampbell, principal of the univer-y, Dr. Leechman was raiſed to at office during the ſummer 1761, a preſentation from the king. or this laſt ſtep of his advance-ent he was chiefly indebted to r. Mure, then one of the barons the exchequer in Scotland, his d pupil and intimate friend. The udents of divinity ſaw with regret eir profeſſor removed from a ſta-on where he had been ſo uſeful to em; yet they were happy to ſee im raiſed to what is the ſummit of mbition to a clergyman in Scot-nd: placed at the head of a re-pectable univerſity, and in a ſitu-ion where he could enjoy, otium um dignitate. Indeed the ſtate of is health had been for ſome time ſo recarious, and he exerted himſelf n doing his duty to others with ſo much ardour, and ſo much indiffe-ence about his own health and life, hat nothing could be more ſeaſon-ble than this relaxation from the abour of public teaching. It was probably the principal means of prolonging his valuable life for five nd twenty years.

" Yet it was impoſſible for a mind ſo conſcientious and ſo active as his was, to enjoy much eaſe in his new ſtation, entruſted as he was with the overſight, both of the morals and literature of ſuch a numerous ſociety; and having a peculiar trouble from his office, with the ſuperintendance and adminiſtration of the various branches of its revenue, more complicated and conſiderable, on the whole, than that of the other Scottiſh univerſities. This trouble was doubtleſs increaſed, from his having been little accuſtomed to buſineſs during his former life.

" Beſides, he did not confine himſelf to the ordinary routine of duty connected with his office; but entered warmly into every ſcheme for the benefit and improvement of the ſociety ſuggeſted by other profeſſors, and proſecuted ſome ſchemes of his own ſuggeſtion. He gave a lecture, for ſome time, once a week, to the ſtudents of divinity, which he was entitled to do as primarius profeſſor; and during the ſeſſion 1763, and ſeveral following ſeſſions, he gave weekly lectures to the whole univerſity, I believe, upon the Sunday evening, when they were diſengaged from their peculiar ſtudies; -- Lectures upon various ſubjects, ſuch as the deſign of academical inſtitutions, and the conduct incumbent both on the maſters and ſcholars to anſwer this deſign: upon ſelf-knowledge, as ſubſervient to this, as well as to our general conduct in life: upon the wiſdom and benefit of early piety; upon the excellency of the ſcriptures, with ſome other lectures formerly delivered in the divinity hall, and now adapted to a more mixed audience. Theſe lectures were remembered and ſpoken of afterwards, as excellently calculated to inſpire young minds with an ardour both for literary and

moral

moral improvement, and to ſtimulate them to ſtrenuous exertions in this ſteep but pleaſing path: to guard them againſt the influence of the ſpirit of ſcepticiſm and licentiouſneſs, very catching in the preſent age; and to prepare them to make a manly ſtand, in their riper years, for truth, virtue, liberty, and every thing important to mankind. Several of the ſtudents, who attended theſe evening lectures, ſtill remember the deep impreſſions which they made upon their minds at the time, the increaſed attachment to ſtudy, and the exertions excited by them."

"His faculties remained in full vigour amidſt the increaſing infirmities of old age, and his taſte for valuable knowledge as acute as ever. This enabled him to be uſeful to many in his private capacity. His houſe was open to ſtudents in every walk, where the converſation uſually turned on ſubjects of learning and taſte, and contributed to their improvement."

"For the laſt twelve years of his life, he was diſtreſſed with aſthmatic and gravelliſh complaints, which he bore with great patience. Having in his youth improperly accuſtomed himſelf to late rather than early hours of ſtudy; this, together with his aſthma, gradually brought on a habit of night-waking, ſuch, that for ſeveral years, he had no ſleep till ſix or ſeven in the morning, and then only very little, ſometimes none at all, for a night or two together. Yet he never complained."

"Nevertheleſs, the want of this beſt of all reſtoratives by degrees waſted his fleſh, and exhauſted his bodily ſtrength, without having any viſible effect upon his ſpirits. Theſe continued invariably good. He was ever fit for buſineſs or converſation. His mind ſeemed indeed to be in a great meaſure independent of all bodily infirmities and connexions. Firm in his own native and acquired vigour, ſupported by the ſteadfaſt principles and joyful hopes of religion, and perpetually animated by ſome worthy purpoſe, it ſtood in no need of the amuſements which weaker minds are obliged to have recourſe to, in order to ſupport or recruit their exhauſted ſpirits."

"When Dr. Leechman was at his country-houſe about the middle of September 1785, being now in the eightieth year of his age, his ſtrength exhauſted by the want of ſleep, and his body worn to a ſhadow; he had a ſudden and violent paralytic ſhock, in conſequence of which he lay inſenſible for an hour. He came out of this, however, perfectly well, as if nothing had happened. But on the 24th of October he had a ſecond ſhock of the ſame kind that laſted only five minutes, and deprived him of the power of his whole left ſide, which he never recovered, but he lay for ſix weeks longer in his bed in a ſtate of extreme weakneſs. He was for the moſt part free from ſharp pain, yet often, for days together, reſtleſs and diſtreſſed in every poſture that could be contrived for him; which he bore with great patience. During this laſt ſcene of his life, he exhibited to thoſe about him, a ſpectacle, not of compaſſion or regret, but worthy of admiration, a great ſoul in a manner without a body: for his bodily powers were all gone, except the power of ſpeech, and this ſometimes ſcarcely audible. But his mind retained its wonted vigour; continued in full poſſeſſion of its faculties; often as intelligent, judicious and even acute, as ever; always firm

ſerene and happy, to a de-
which he was unable to ex-
."

His diſorder took various
, and once or twice flattered
iends, even his medical friends,
ſome ſlight hope of a recove-

On the firſt of December he
ered ſo much, as to ſurpriſe
body, and converſed again
his friends in the moſt eaſy and
ful manner imaginable. But
ray of hope was ſoon extin-
ed! For the next day he had
rd attack of his diſorder, not
on his extremities, like the for-
but over his whole body;
that it was thought impoſſible
ould come out of it. He did,
ever, recover in an hour or
and though he ſpoke nothing
evening, but yes or no, when
eſtion was put to him; he
ed eaſy, or free from pain; his
tenance reſumed its wonted ſen-
ty and placid ſerenity."

"Thus he continued till very early in the morning, December 3, when he fell aſleep, and this in ſo eaſy a manner, that nobody about him knew the exact time when it happened.

"Such was the life, and ſuch the death, of this good man. They afford a pleaſing and ſtriking proof, that Chriſtianity has not grown old by length of time, but continues to exert even at this day, its primitive happy influence on ſome of the moſt liberal and beſt cultivated minds. Of this caſt was Dr. Leechman's. His increaſing knowledge did not weaken, but ſtrengthen his faith. He had with him a fund of everlaſting conſolation and good hope through grace; which became more and more lively the nearer he approached to the conſummation of his hope, and rendered the laſt ſcene, amidſt the moſt humiliating bodily weakneſs, by far the higheſt and happieſt ſcene of his life."

SKETCH of the CHARACTER of Mr. HARMER.

[om the Preface to Dr. Symonds's Obſervations upon the Expediency of reviſing the preſent Engliſh Verſion of the four Goſpels.]

THE reputation of Mr. Harmer, as a ſcholar and vine, is, I believe, fully and erſally eſtabliſhed. If, as a er, he may ſometimes be thought gant in his ſtyle, and too mi- in the inveſtigation of facts, theſe defects are amply compen- d by the general choice of his ma- ls, and the clearneſs of method which he digeſted and arrang- them. Some books come into world, ſet off with all the orna- ts of language; and with their ors are ſoon forgotten; they reſemble thoſe meteors, which by their luminous appearance attract our notice; and almoſt in the ſame moment vaniſh from our ſight. The credit of Mr. Harmer's writings reſts upon a foundation ſtrong and durable. He hath profeſſedly treated a ſubject of the firſt importance, which had before been touched upon only incidentally; and, by ſhewing at large the wonderful conformity between the ancient and modern cuſtoms in the Eaſt, hath not only thrown a conſiderable light upon numberleſs paſſages in the Bible, but

hath

hath opened new and fruitful ſources of information for the uſe of future expoſitors.

"But it would be doing great injuſtice to Mr. Harmer, to confine our attention to the fruits of his learning alone. As the whole purpoſe of his ſtudies was to illuſtrate the ſcriptures, ſo it was his conſtant endeavour to practiſe thoſe duties, which are therein declared to be eſſential to the forming of a true Chriſtian. He was a man of unaffected piety: equally kind as a maſter, parent, and huſband: meek and modeſt in his deportment: and invariably averſe from every degree of intemperance and exceſs. Superior to all thoſe narrow and illiberal prejudices, which we are apt to imbibe from education or habit, he was governed by a general principle of benevolence; and though he was commonly called the Father of the Diſſenters, yet his good offices were ſo far from being confined to thoſe of his own communion, that he acknowledged and encouraged merit whereſoever he found it. 'will apply to Harmer" was the uſ language of every injured perſon his neighbourhood; and it ſelde happened, that the aggreſſor was ſoon induced by his perſuaſion repair the injury which had be done; and I do not exaggera when I affirm, that there is not p bably a ſingle inſtance of an indi dual to be found, who, by a m and ſeaſonable interference, p vented more law-ſuits than M Harmer. When we reflect that theſe virtues, which he ſo emine ly poſſeſſed, were ſtill heightened the character of a peacemaker character, to which an evangeli bleſſing is annexed, we cannot look upon his death as a public lo much leſs can we be ſurprized, t it ſhould deeply affect all thoſe w perſonally knew him and enjo his friendſhip; but by none is more ſincerely lamented, than him, who offers this ſlender trib of regard to his memory."

ANECDOTES OF CORELLI.

[From the 3d vol. of Dr. Burney's General Hiſtory of Muſic.]

"AT the time that Corelli enjoyed the higheſt reputation, his fame having reached the court of Naples, and excited a deſire in the king to hear him perform, he was invited, by order of his majeſty to that capital. Corelli, with ſome reluctance, was at length prevailed on to accept the invitation; but, leſt he ſhould not be well accompanied, he took with him his own ſecond violin and violoncello. At Naples he found Aleſſandro Scarlatti, and ſeveral other maſters, who entreated him to play ſome of his concertos before the king; this he for ſome time decl ed, on account of his whole ba not being with him, and there no time, he ſaid, for a rehear At length, however, he conſente and in great fear performed the of his concertos. His aſtoniſhm was very great to find that the N politan band executed his concer almoſt as accurately at ſight, as own band, after repeated rehearſ when they had almoſt got them heart. *Si ſuona*, (ſays he to M teo, his ſecond violin) *a Napoli*

"After this, being again adm ted into his Majeſty's preſence, deſi

ſired to perform one of his ſona-
s, the king found one of the ada-
os ſo long and dry, that being tir-
, he quitted the room, to the great
ortification of Corelli. After-
ards, he was deſired to lead in the
erformance of a maſque compoſed
y Scarlatti, which was to be exe-
ited before the king; this he
ndertook, but from Scarlatti's
ttle knowledge of the violin,
ne part was ſomewhat aukward and
ifficult: in one place it went up to
; and when they came to that
aſſage, Corelli failed, and was un-
ble to execute it; but he was aſto-
iſhed beyond meaſure to hear Pe-
illo, the Neapolitan leader, and
ne other violins, perform that
hich had baffled his ſkill. A ſong
ucceeded this, in C minor, which
Corelli led off in C major; *ric-
ominciamo*, ſaid Scarlatti, good-
aturedly. Still Corelli perſiſted
n the major key, till Scarlatti was
bliged to call out to him, and ſet
im right. So mortified was poor
Corelli with this diſgrace, and the
general bad figure he imagined he had made at Naples, that he ſtole back to Rome in ſilence.

"It was ſoon after this, that a hautbois player, whoſe name Geminiani could not recollect, acquired ſuch applauſe at Rome, that Corelli, diſguſted, would never play again in public. All theſe mortifications, joined to the ſucceſs of Valentini, whoſe concertos and performance, though infinitely inferior to thoſe of Corelli, were become faſhionable, threw him into ſuch a ſtate of melancholy and chagrin, as was thought, ſaid Geminiani, to have haſtened his death.

"This account of Corelli's journey to Naples is not a mere perſonal anecdote, as it throws a light upon the comparative ſtate of muſic at Naples and at Rome in Corelli's time, and exhibits a curious contraſt between the fiery genius of the Neapolitans, and the meek, timid, and gentle character of Corelli, ſo analogous to the ſtyle of his muſic."

The LIFE of GIUSEPPE TARTINI, with his CHARACTER as a COMPOSER.

[From the ſame Work.]

"GIuſeppe Tartini was born at Pirano, in the province of Iſtria, in April, 1692. His father having been a great benefactor to the cathedral church at Parenzo, had been ennobled in reward for his piety. Giuſeppe was intended for the law, but mixing muſic with his other ſtudies during the courſe of his education, it ſoon grew too powerful for the reſt, and tyraniſed over the whole circle of ſiſter ſciences. This is not ſo ſurpriſing as another ſtrong propenſity, which during his youth occupied his attention very much, which was fencing, an art that was not likely to become neceſſary to the ſafety or honour of a man of ſo pious and pacific a diſpoſition, in a civil employment; and yet he is ſaid to have equalled in this art even the maſter from whom he received inſtructions. In 1710, he was ſent to the univerſity of Padua to purſue his ſtudies as a civilian; but before he was twenty, having married without the conſent of his parents, they wholly

wholly abandoned him, and obliged him to wander about in ſearch of an aſylum; which, after many hardſhips, he found in a convent at Aſſiſi, where he was received by a monk, his relation, who commiſerating his misfortunes, let him remain there till ſomething better could be done for him. Here he practiſed the violin to keep off melancholy reflections; but being diſcovered on a great feſtival in the orcheſtra of the church of the convent by the accident of a remarkable high wind, which, forcing open the doors of the church, blew aſide the curtain of the orcheſtra and expoſed all the performers to the ſight of the congregation; when being recognized by a Paduan acquaintance, differences were accommodated, and he ſettled with his wife at Venice for ſome time. This lady, indeed, was of the Xantippe kind, and being himſelf very Socratic in wiſdom, virtue, and patience, her reign was unmoleſted by any domeſtic war, or oppoſition to her ſupremacy.

"While he was at Venice, the celebrated Veracini arrived in that city, whoſe performance awakened an extraordinary emulation in Tartini, who, though he had been thought to have a powerful hand, had never heard a great player before, or conceived it poſſible for the bow to have ſuch varied powers of energy and expreſſion. He therefore quitted Venice the next day, and went to Ancona, in order to ſtudy the uſe of the bow in more tranquillity, and with more convenience that at Venice, as he had a place aſſigned him in the opera orcheſtra of that city.

"This happened in the year 1714, the year in which he diſcovered the phenomenon of the third ſound. It was here too, and in the carnival of the ſame year, that he heard and perceived the extraordinary effects of a piece of ſimple recitative, which he mentions in his *Trattato di Muſica*. It was during his reſidence at Ancona, that, by diligent ſtudy and practice, he acquired ſufficient abilities and reputation to be invited, in 1721, to the place of firſt violin, and maſter of the band in the celebrated church of St. Anthony of Padua.

"By this time, his fame was ſo extended that he had repeated invitations from Paris and London to viſit thoſe capitals; but by a ſingular devotion and attachment to his patron ſaint, to whom he conſecrated himſelf and his inſtrument, he declined entering into any other ſervice.

"By the year 1728, he had made many excellent ſcholars, and formed a ſchool, or method of practice, for the ſtudents on the violin, that was celebrated all over Europe, and which increaſed in fame to the end of his life.

"The author of the compendium of his life informs us that his firſt book of ſolos was engraved at Amſterdam 1734; the ſecond at Rome 1745, and that he produced above two hundred of theſe compoſitions, which were handed about in manuſcript by the curious; but does not ſeem to know that nine or ten books of Tartini's ſolos were printed at Paris, of which I am in poſſeſſion of opera third, ſixth, ſeventh, and ninth, beſides the two books printed in England, amounting to upwards of fifty ſolos, excluſive of manuſcripts.

"Of his concertos, which likewiſe amount to two hundred, this author gives a very unſatisfactory account; he ſays that a ſurreptitious copy of two ſets having firſt appeared in Holland, he would never own them.

firſt ſix ſeem to have been com-
d in his firſt manner before he
ged his ſtyle; and I find them
ioned in Dutch catalogues be-
the year 1740. The ſecond
re more modern, and were ma-
tly compoſed in his ſecond and
manner, after the year 1744,
n he is ſaid to have chang-
his ſtyle. They were col-
d, as Le Cene confeſſes, from
rent people who had obtained
es from the author, and there
s not the leaſt doubt of their
g genuine.

Though Tartini's compoſitions
ys afforded me great pleaſure,
were never obliterated from my
nory, yet as they are now as
h laid aſide as thoſe of Baſſani
ocatelli, I thought it right to
them a reviſion before I ven-
d my ſentiments concerning
merit.

Tartini, on a recent examination
is works, ſeems, to my feelings
conceptions, to have had a lar-
portion of merit, as a mere in-
nental compoſer, than any other
or who flouriſhed during the
fifty or ſixty years of the pre-
century. Though he made
elli his model in the purity of
harmony, and ſimplicity of his
ulation, he greatly ſurpaſſed
compoſer in the fertility and
inality of his invention; not
in the ſubjects of his melodies,
in the truly cantabile manner of
ting them. Many of his ada-
want nothing but words to be
llent pathetic opera ſongs. His
gros are ſometimes difficult; but
paſſages fairly belong to the
rument for which they were
poſed, and were ſuggeſted
his conſummate knowledge
the finger-board, and pow-
of the bow. He certainly re-
s his paſſages, and adheres to
riginal motive, or theme, too
89.

much, for the favourite deſultory ſtyle of the preſent times; but it muſt be allowed that by his delicate ſelection and arrangement of notes, his paſſages are always good; play them quick or play them ſlow, they never ſeem unmeaning or fortuitious.

"Indeed, as a harmoniſt, he was perhaps more truly ſcientific than any other compoſer of his time in the clearneſs, character, and preciſion of his baſes; which were never caſual, or the effect of habit or auricular prejudice and expectation, but learned, judicious, and certain. And yet, with all my partiality for his ſtyle, talents, and abilities, as well as veneration for his principles and character, I muſt, in juſtice to others, own, that, though the adagio and ſolo-playing, in general, of his ſcholars are exquiſitely poliſhed and expreſſive, yet it ſeems as if that energy, fire, and freedom of bow, which modern ſymphonies and orcheſtra-playing require, were wanting. It is now (1788) eighteen years ſince I viſited Italy, and gave my opinions of what then ſubſiſted, with all the fairneſs and freedom poſſible; but ſince that time, the productions of Boccherini, Haydn, Pleyel, Vanhal, and others, have occaſioned ſuch a revolution in violin-muſic, and playing, by the fertility and boldneſs of their invention, that compoſitions which were then generally thought full of ſpirit and fire, appear now totally tame and inſipid.

"This admirable muſician and worthy man died the 26th of February, 1770, to the great regret of the inhabitants of the city of Padua, where he had reſided near fifty years, and where he was not only regarded as its chief and moſt attractive ornament, but philoſopher, ſaint, and ſage.

"As Tartini, beſides his practical

excellence, deſervedly merits a place among the ingenious theoriſts of the preſent age, we ſhall reſerve the conſideration of his writings on art for another part of this work

SINGULAR ACCOUNT of LA MAUPIN.

[From the ſame Work.]

LA Maupin ſeems to have been a moſt extraordinary perſonage. "She was equally fond of both ſexes, fought and loved like a man, and reſiſted and fell like a woman. Her adventures are of a very romantic kind. Married to a young huſband, who ſoon was obliged to abſent himſelf from her, to enter on an office he had obtained in Provence, ſhe ran away with a fencing-maſter, of whom ſhe learned the ſmall-ſword, and became an excellent fencer, which was afterwards an uſeful qualification to her on ſeveral occaſions. The lovers firſt retreated from perſecution to Marſeilles; but neceſſity ſoon obliged them to ſolicit employment there, at the opera; and, as both had by nature good voices, they were received without difficulty. But ſoon after this ſhe was ſeized with a paſſion for a young perſon of her own ſex, whom ſhe ſeduced, but the object of her whimſical affection being purſued by her friends and taken, was thrown into a convent at Avignon, where the Maupin ſoon followed her; and having preſented herſelf as a novice, obtained admiſſion. Some time after, ſhe ſet fire to the convent, and, availing herſelf of the confuſion ſhe had occaſioned, carried off her favourite. But being purſued and taken, ſhe was condemned to the flames for contumacy; a ſentence, however, which was not execu ed, as the young Marſeillaiſe was found, and reſtored to her friends.

"She then went to Paris, made her firſt appearance on opera ſtage in 1695, when ſhe formed the part of Pallas, in C mus, with the greateſt ſucceſs. applauſe was ſo violent, that ſhe obliged, in her car, to take off caſque to ſalute and thank the lic, which redoubled their mar approbation. From that time ſucceſs was uninterrupted. meni, the ſinger, having affro her, ſhe put on men's cloaths, wa ed for him in the Place des toires, and inſiſted on his drawin ſword and fighting her, which refuſing, ſhe caned him, and from him his watch and ſnuff- Next day Dumeni having boaſt the opera-houſe, that he had fended himſelf againſt three who attempted to rob him, ſhe lated the whole ſtory, and prod his watch and ſnuff-box in proo her having caned him for cowardice. Thevenard was ne treated in the ſame manner, and no other way of eſcaping her tiſement, than by publicly aſkin pardon, after hiding himſelf at Palais Royal during three we At a ball given by Monſieur, brother of Louis XIV. ſhe a put on men's cloaths, and having haved impertinently to a lady, t of her friends, ſuppoſing the M pin to be a man, called her She might eaſily have avoided combat by diſcovering her ſex, ſhe inſtantly drew, and killed t all three. Afterwards, retu

ery coolly to the ball, she told he story to Monsieur, who obtained er pardon. After other adven- ures, she went to Brussels, and there ecame the mistress of the elector of Bavaria. This prince quitting her or the countess of Arcos, sent her y the count, husband of that lady, purse of 40,000 livres, with an rder to quit Brussels. This extra- rdinary heroine threw the purse at the count's head, telling him, it was a recompence worthy of such a scoundrel and ——— as himself. After this, she returned to the opera stage, which she quitted in 1705. Being at length seized with a fit of devotion, she recalled her husband, who had remained in Provence, and passed with him the last years of her life in a very pious manner, dying in 1707, at the age of thirty-four."

Some ACCOUNT of Dr. ARNE, and his Musical Productions.

[From the Fourth Volume of the same Work.]

THOMAS Augustine Arne was the son of Arne the elebrated upholdsterer, of King- treet, Covent-garden, at whose ouse the Indian Kings lodged in the eign of Queen Anne, as mentioned n the Spectator, No. 50. Arne ad a good school education, having een sent to Eton by his father, who ntended him for the law. But I ave been assured by several of his chool-fellows, that his love for usic operated upon him too power- ully, even while he was Eton, for is own peace or that of his com- anions; for with a miserable crack- d common-flute, he used to torment hem night and day, when not obliged o attend the school. And he told me imself, that when he left Eton, such vas his passion for music, that he used o avail himself of the privilege of a ervant, by borrowing a livery and going into the upper gallery of the pera, which was then appropriated o domestics. At home he had con- rived to secrete a spinet in his room, pon which, after muffling the trings with a handkerchief, he used o practise in the night while the rest of the family were asleep; for had his father discovered how he spent his time, he would, probably, have thrown the instrument out of the window, if not the player. This young votary of Apollo was at length obliged to serve a three years clerk- ship to the law, without ever intend- ing to make it his profession; but even during this servitude, he dedicated every moment he could obtain fairly, or otherwise, to the study of music. Besides practising on the spinet and studying composi- tion, by himself, he contrived, dur- ing his clerkship, to acquire some in- structions on the violin, of Festing, upon which instrument he had made so considerable a progress, that soon after he had quitted his legal master, his father accidentally calling at a gentleman's house in the neighbour- hood, upon business, found him en- gaged with company; but sending in his name, he was invited up stairs, where there was a large company and a concert, in which, to his great astonishment, he caught his son in the very act of playing the first fiddle! Finding him more admired for his musical talents than his know- ledge in the law, he was soon pre- vailed upon to forgive his unruly passion, and to let him try to turn it to some account. No sooner was the young musician able to practice

aloud in his father's houſe, than he bewitched the whole family. In diſcovering that his ſiſter was not only fond of muſic, but had a very ſweet-toned and touching voice, he gave her ſuch inſtructions as ſoon enabled her to ſing for Lampe, in his opera of Amelia. And finding her ſo well received in that performance, he ſoon prepared a new character for her, by ſetting Addiſon's opera of Roſamond, in which he employed his younger brother likewiſe in the character of the Page. This muſical drama was firſt performed March 7th, 1737, at Lincoln's-Inn Fields, where Mrs. Barbier performed the part of the King; Leveridge, Sir Truſty; Page, Maſter Arne, who had never appeared in public; Meſſenger, Mr. Corfe; Queen, Mrs. Jones; Grideline, Miſs Chambers, and the part of Roſamond by Miſs Arne. The opera was performed ten nights ſucceſſively, and with great applauſe; the laſt time, for the benefit of Mr. Arne, jun. the compoſer. Having ſucceeded ſo well in a ſerious opera, our young muſician tried his powers at a burletta, and fixed upon Fielding's Tom Thumb for that purpoſe, which, under the title of the Tragedy of Tragedies having met with great ſucceſs in 1731, he now got it transferred into the Opera of Operas, and ſetting it to muſic "after the Italian manner," had it performed, May 31ſt, at the New Theatre in the Hay-market; the part of Tom Thumb by Maſter Arne, his brother. Princeſs Amelia and the Duke of Cumberland honoured the ſecond repreſentation with their preſence; the prince of Wales, the ſixth; the youngeſt princeſſes, the eighth; and afterwards it had a conſiderable run."

"In 1738, Arne eſtabliſhed his reputation as a lyric compoſer, by the admirable manner in which he ſet Milton's Comus. In this maſqu he introduced a light, airy, original and pleaſing melody, wholly differ ent from that of Purcell or Handel whom all Engliſh compoſers had hi therto either pillaged or imitated. In deed, the melody of Arne at this time and of his Vauxhall ſongs afterwards forms an æra in Engliſh muſic; i was ſo eaſy, natural, and agreeable to the whole kingdom, that it ha an effect upon our national taſte and till a more modern Italian ſtyl was introduced in the paſticcio Eng liſh operas of Meſſrs. Bickerſtaff an Cumberland, it was the ſtandard o all perfection at our theatres an public gardens."

"In 1762, Arne quitted the for mer ſtyle of melody, in which h had ſo well ſet Comus, and furniſh ed Vauxhall and the whole kingdom with ſuch ſongs as had improved an poliſhed our national taſte; an when he ſet the bold tranſlation o Metaſtaſio's opera of Artaſerſe, h crouded the airs, particularly in th part of Mandane for Miſs Brent with all the Italian diviſions an difficulties which had ever bee heard at the opera. This drama by the novelty of the muſic to Eng liſh ears, with the talents of Ter ducci, Peretti, and the doctor ſcholar Miſs Brent, had very grea ſucceſs; and ſtill continues to b repreſented whenever ſingers can b found who are poſſeſſed of ſufficien abilities for its performance. But i ſetting Artaxerxes, though the me lody is leſs original than that o Comus, Arne had the merit of fir adapting many of the beſt paſſage of Italy, which all Europe admired to our own language, and of incor porating them with his own pro perty, and with what was ſtill i favour of former Engliſh com poſers.

"The general melody of ou countryma

untryman, if analized, would per-
ps appear to be neither Italian
r Engliſh, but an agreeable mix-
re of Italian, Engliſh, and Scots.
any of his ballads, indeed, were
ofeſſed imitations of the Scots
le; but in his other ſongs he fre-
ently dropped into it, perhaps,
thout deſign. Arne was never a
ſe imitator of Handel, nor
ought, by the votaries of that great
uſician, to be a ſound contrapun-
t. However, he had an inward
d ſecret reverence for his abilities,
d for thoſe of Geminiani, as well
for the ſcience of Pepuſch; but,
cept when he attempted oratorios,
eirs was not the merit requiſite for
m, a popular compoſer who had
fferent performers and different
arers to write for. In the ſcience
harmony, though he was chiefly
f-taught, yet being a man of ge-
us, quick parts, and great pene-
ation in his art, he betrayed no
norance or want of ſtudy in his
ores.

"The oratorios he produced were
unfortunate, that he was always a
ſer whenever they were perform-
. And yet it would be unjuſt to
y that they did not merit a better
te; for though the choruſes were
uch inferior in force to thoſe of
andel, yet the airs were frequently
mirable. But beſides the great
putation of Handel with whom he
d to contend, Arne never was able
have his muſic ſo well performed;
his competitor had always a more
merous and ſelect band, a better
gan, which he played himſelf, and
etter fingers.

"None of this ingenious and
eaſing compoſer's capital produc-
ons had full and unequivocal ſuc-
ceſs but Comus and Artaxerxes, at the diſtance of 24 years from each other. Roſamond, his firſt muſical drama, had a few ſongs in it that were long in favour, and the Judgment of Paris many; but except when his ſiſter, Miſs Arne, afterwards Mrs. Cibber, ſung in them, he never gained any thing by either. Thomas and Sally, indeed, as a farce, with very little muſical merit, was often acted; and previous to that, Eliza was a little while in favour; but the number of his unfortunate pieces for the ſtage was prodigious; yet none of them were condemned or neglected for want of merit in the muſic, but words, of which the the doctor was too frequently guilty of being the author. Upon the whole, though this compoſer, who died March 5th, 1778, had formed a new ſtyle of his own, there did not appear that fertility of ideas, original grandeur of thought, or thoſe reſources upon all occaſions which are diſcoverable in the works of his predeceſſor, Purcell, both for the church and ſtage; yet, in ſecular muſic, he muſt be allowed to have ſurpaſſed him in eaſe, grace, and variety; which is no inconſiderable praiſe, when it is remembered, that from the death of Purcell to that of Arne, a period of more than four-ſcore years, no candidate for muſical fame among our countrymen had appeared, who was equally admired by the nation at large.

"Of near a hundred and fifty muſical pieces that have been brought on the ſtage at our two national theatres within theſe forty years, thirty of them, at leaſt, were ſet by Arne."

MANNERS OF NATIONS.

The MANNER of CONDUCTING RELIGIOUS WORSHIP in the OTHOMAN EMPIRE.

[From the First Volume of M. D'Ohsson's General History of the Othoman Empire.]

"THERE is the utmoſt ſimplicity in this public ſervice, both with regard to the interior appearance of the moſques, and to the dreſs of the Imams and the other miniſters of religion, who never wear any ſacerdotal habit; yet nothing can be more awful and auguſt than this ceremony, performed with the moſt ſilent and profound attention.

"Notwithſtanding the ſimplicity of all their temples, they do not fail, particularly the imperial moſques, by their immenſe extent and high-vaulted roofs, to excite admiration. The generality of them are adorned with ſplendid columns of porphyry, of green antique, or of marble. The decorations conſiſt only of ſmall ſilver lamps, and of ſmall luſtres elegantly worked, ſurrounded by ſtill ſmaller lamps, and oſtriches' eggs, on which paſſages from the Cour ann are inſcribed in letters of gold. Some of theſe moſques, particularly that of Sultan Ahmed, have alſo golden lamps enriched with jewels. The walls are in general ornamented only with inſcriptions in large golden letters; ſuch as the name of God, Allah, thoſe of the Prophet, of the four firſt Khaliphs, and of the Imams Haſſan and Huſſein, ſons of Aly. They exhibit no image, figure, or repreſentation whatever, neither in painting or ſculpture; the law is in this reſpect extremely rigorous.

"Three principal objects, if we may uſe the expreſſion, may be ſaid to characterize all the Mahometan temples; 1. the altar, Mihhrab, which is a concavity or niche of ſix or eight feet high, cut out of the wall, at the extremity of the edifice, and which ſerves no other purpoſe than to ſhew the geographical ſituation of Mecca; 2. the gallery of the Muezzinns, Mahhfil-Muezzinn, always on the left of the altar; 3. the pulpit, Kurſy, of the Scheykhs who preach; it is elevated by two or three ſteps on the right of the altar. In the principal moſques, when preaching, Khouthbé is allowed at the ſolemn ſervice on Fridays, and on the two feaſts of Beyram, there is a ſecond pulpit, called Minnber, entirely conſecrated to the miniſter Khatib, who diſcharges that important function. This pulpit, of fifteen, twenty, or twenty-three ſteps, in proportion to the height of each moſque, is placed at a certain diſtance from the altar, always on the left hand. The imperial moſques and thoſe which the ſultan ſome-

time

times honours with his preſence, are alſo decorated with a gallery, Mahhſil--Padiſchahy, deſtined for his reception, and for that of the Khaſsodalys, or gentlemen of the bedchamber. It has gilt grated windows, and is placed on the right of the altar, oppoſite the pulpit of the Khatibs.

" In the day, the ſervice is performed without tapers or flambeaux; and at the firſt, fourth, and fifth Namazs, they light only a part of the ſmall lamps ſuſpended from the ceiling, and the tapers placed near the altar. Of theſe there is in general only two, one on the right, the other on the left of the Mihhrab: they have been given by the founders of the moſques. Pious Muſſulmen are, however, permitted to increaſe their number by donations equally perpetual. Thus ſome moſques have four, ſix, eight, ten, &c.: they are always placed by the ſide of the two firſt, in a right line, along the wall; the number of them, however, never exceeds eighteen, nine on each ſide of the altar. In caſe of additional donations, the Caiym-Baſchy of the moſque, inſtead of increaſing the number, cauſes new ones of a larger ſize to be made, compoſed of theſe and the former, in the form of flambeaux. The candleſticks are generally of copper, a very few of the moſques have them of ſilver: that of Saint Sophia has two of maſſive gold; a ſad monument of the ſpoils of Hungary, when Buda, its capital, fell into the hands of Suleyman I. ſuch at leaſt the opinion of the people, and of the miniſters who perform ſervice in that moſque.

" In all the Mahometan temples there are neither benches nor chairs: the uſe of theſe would be incompatible both with the manners of the people, and with the nature of their worſhip, which conſiſts in inclinations and proſtrations. The great and the ſmall, all are ſeated, without diſtinction, on the carpets or mats with which the moſques are furniſhed at all ſeaſons of the year; thus no one ever enters without leaving his outermoſt ſlippers at the door, both in ſummer and winter. The 19th and 25th plates, which repreſent Saint Sophia and Sultan-Ahmed will afford an exact idea of the inſide of theſe moſques. As to the political and hiſtorical account of theſe temples, their rank, their prerogatives, their revenues, &c. theſe circumſtances will be diſcuſſed hereafter, in the chapter which mentions their being built.

" In the public ſervice, the officiating Imam always faces the altar, and ſtands before the reſt of the aſſembly; the people are ranged behind him in parallel lines, from the altar to the door of the temple. No one ever begins a new line till the vacancies of the preceding are entirely full: in this mode of arrangement are the Namazs performed in public. Their various movements, which are made with aſtoniſhing regularity and preciſion, preſent a moſt ſtriking ſpectacle. The Imam alone recites the prayers aloud: he and the Muezzinns are the only perſons allowed to chant. Of the fourteen proſodies which they have for ſpiritual harmony, ſeven are reprobated as profane; the others are uſed by the miniſters of religion; but the moſt eſteemed, and moſt generally adopted, is that which bears the name of Aſſim. The people repeat in a low voice what the Imam chants, and hear in ſilence the different chapters of the Cour'ann which are recited by him. The Amen only, Aminn, may be articulated aloud. This Namaz, as has been already obſerved, conſtitutes

the whole religious ceremony of the Mahometans; it is uniform, general, universal, at all the canonical hours, in all the moſques, and throughout the whole courſe of the year; there is no difference, except with regard to the number of the rik'aths preſcribed for each of the canonical hours, and to the recitation of the chapters of the Cour'ann, which are always at the choice of each Imam at public prayers, and of every individual in his private worſhip.

"As in the aſſembly of the men the law allows only women of a certain age, they are ſeldom ſeen in the moſques; private galleries are, however, ſet apart for them; they are furniſhed with grated windows, and are elevated at the entrance of the temple, above the principal door: the women, who are here placed, form, according to the ſpirit of the law, the laſt rows of the aſſembly. They never aſſemble together in a body to ſay their Namaz, either at the moſques or elſewhere. There are neither convents, monaſteries, nor religious ſocieties for the female ſex; whatever be their ſtate and condition, they almoſt univerſally ſay their Namaz in private.

"But the men, as has been already mentioned, are allowed to ſay it either in public or private: many of the nobles and public officers, when they are unable to attend the moſques, pray publicly with the ſervants of their houſhold. If they perform this duty in the offices where they tranſact public buſineſs, all the perſons who are there employed, all they who may accidentally be preſent, join in this pious ceremony. Hence in the public hotels, and in houſes of diſtinction, they keep private Imams and Muezzinns, by the title of chaplains or almoners. Theſe Muezzinns announce the Ezann on the top of the ſtair-caſe, or near the door of the room where they meet to pray. They afterward place themſelves in one of the rows of the aſſembly, where they recite the ſecond ſummons, Ikaméth; after which the Imam, placed as in the moſques before the congregation begins the Namaz. Theſe private miniſters are different from thoſe public ones which officiate in the moſques. They are merely citizens, appointed by the heads of families, under whoſe name and authority they preſide over this religious ſervice, as having themſelves the privilege of diſcharging in their own houſes the ſacred office of Imam. This prerogative is common to every Muſſulman in theſe private aſſemblies; and it is at the choice of this tranſient Imam, whether he who officiates be poſſeſſed of thoſe virtuous qualities which the law requires in thoſe who aſſume that hallowed character.

"Except in caſe of lawful impediments, they very ſeldom omit the daily Namazs in public, either at the moſques, or elſewhere. The really pious, and they who find it their intereſt to appear ſo, never omit this ſervice. The Sultans themſelves very frequently join in this ceremony with the gentlemen of the bed-chamber, in a chapel of the ſeraglio. They who omit this ceremony dread the cenſures of the lawyers, the moſt rigorous of whom loudly accuſe thoſe who ſay their Namaz in private, but particularly perſons of rank and dignity, as being more eſpecially required to ſet an example to the reſt of the nation.

"Bayezid I. devoted to wine and debauchery, neglected the public prayers. We are informed by Sa-d'ed-dinn Efendy, that this monarch had a diſpute with the principal Oulémas of his court, reſpecting a cauſe which intereſted one of the

officers

icers of the palace. It was neceſ-
y to produce a ſecond witneſs to
ove judicially the object of the
ocedure. Bayezid, who was ac-
ainted with it, told the Mollas,
at he knew accurately the circum-
nce, and would bear teſtimony to
e truth: "We can only believe
ur word," replied one of theſe ma-
trates, Fenarizadé Shems'uddinn
endy, Cady of Brouſſe, then the
pital of the empire; "but the
idence of your majeſty is not ad-
ſſible in any judicial queſtion."
n Bayezid's expreſſing the greateſt
rprize, the Cady very reſpectfully
plained to him, that the law did
t allow a Muſſulman to be a wit-
neſs, unleſs he had been faithful to his religion, and attentive to fulfil all the duties of external worſhip. "Thus, as your majeſty," added he, "does not join in the five daily Namazs in common with the faithful, your teſtimony is not admiſſible." Theſe words made a deep impreſſion on the mind of the ſultan: from that day he determined to be rigorouſly attentive to this public form of prayer; he commanded even a moſque to be conſtructed near his palace, where he afterward attended regularly every day, ſays the ſame author, to diſcharge publicly this firſt duty of Iſlamiſm."

FUNERAL LAWS and CEREMONIES of the MAHOMETANS.

[From the ſame Work.]

THESE funeral laws are obſerved with the moſt ſcrulous attention by the whole Mahometan people. They uſe unirmly the ſame lotions, the ſame velopes, the ſame perfumes, the me prayers, and the ſame celerity interment.

"Notwithſtanding the ſilence of e ancient Imams, reſpecting thoſe ho have a right to adminiſter the neral lotion, all the modern ctors are of opinion that it beings, as well as the funeral prayer, the ſultan, as ſupreme Imam; ter him to the magiſtrates, to the lollas, Cadys, and Naïbs; afterard to the natural guardian of the ceaſed, to his father, ſon, or areſt relation. It is only when eſe are wanting that the right delves to the Imams-Khatibs, which ey are conſidered as tranſmitting the rectors, Imam'ulhaihs. Theſe ſt generally diſcharge this duty in perſon, or ſubſtitute the Muezzinns and Caiyims belonging to the ſame moſque. With regard to the female ſex, this office is always performed by women, who are particularly appointed, by the name Ghaſſalé, that is waſher. However, in a caſe of abſolute neceſſity, as if a woman die on board a ſhip, &c. a man is permitted to perform theſe luſtrations; but then the neareſt relations, Mahréms, have the ſole right of exerciſing this religious privilege, the ſon being preferred to the huſband, which is expreſsly determined in the collection of the Fethwas of the Mouphty Behdje Abd'ullah Efendy.

"According to the hiſtorian Ahmed Efendy, the body of Mohammed was waſhed by his relations and principal diſciples, Aly, Abas, Fazl, Caſſem, Uſſamé, Schakrann, &c.; that of Ebu-Bekir by his wife Eſſma. Almoſt all the khaliphs his ſucceſſors received theſe lotions from the hands of their neareſt relations.

The

The Othoman ſultans, however, and all the princes of their family, are at their death generally waſhed by the Hunnkear-Imamys, who are the almoners of the ſeraglio.

"No Muſſulman is buried without theſe luſtrations. The Mahometan annals afford only one example of their being neglected, which was the daughter of the Prophet. Fathima, the wife of Aly, who ſurvived her father only ſix months, commanded in her laſt moments that with regard to her no funeral lotions or envelopes ſhould be uſed; that her body ſhould not be uncovered, but that ſhe ſhould be interred in her clothes: theſe orders were reſpectfully attended to.

"The funeral prayer, which is ſubſequent to the luſtrations, differs from the common Namaz, in requiring neither inclinations, proſtrations, nor even the Ezann and Ikameth, which, as has been already mentioned, are conſidered as having been performed at the birth of the deceaſed, when he received his name. This prayer is ſaid in the houſe of the perſon departed, whether man or woman, by relations and friends, at which the Imam of the pariſh always preſides. With reſpect to ſovereigns, it was formerly a prevailing cuſtom, particularly among the khaliphs, that the new monarch diſcharged this religious duty to the prince whom he ſucceeded. This was in imitation of Omer, who, at Ebu-Bekir's death, ſaid the funeral prayer before the whole family of this firſt of the khaliphs. For the Othoman ſultans, it is uſually the Imam-Ewel, the firſt almoner of the ſeraglio, or the Mouphty himſelf, or in his ſtead the Scheykh of Saint Sophia, who performs this function at the head of the principal Oulemas and officers of the court. The Scheykh of Saint Sophia, who conſidered as the higheſt of all th religious miniſters, has alſo th right of exerciſing this office, an even that of the luſtrations, at th death of the Mouphty and Grand Vezir, as being the two vicars an repreſentatives of the ſovereign the one ſpiritual, the other tem poral.

"Throughout all claſſes of th nation, the funeral rites are per formed always with as much ſimpl city as precipitation. This law wa eſtabliſhed by the Prophet's exam ple, who, according to his own de ſire, was buried without pomp, few hours after his deceaſe. Hen the day of a Muſſulman's death alſo that of his interment, of wha ever ſex, rank, and condition. Th dangerous haſte can only be attri buted to the heat of the climat Humanity, it cannot be doubte muſt ſometimes be the victim of th cuſtom, which is uniform at a ſeaſons, and throughout all the Ma hometan countries. They depar from it only in extraordinary caſe and for ſovereigns and perſons o the higheſt rank. The khaliph Oth man I. was not buried till the thir day after his death, and then wit the greateſt ſecrecy, to conceal h body from the rage of thoſe wh had ſought his life. All the ſove reigns who have died in war, or a a diſtance from their capital, hav been carried thither and interre many days after their deceaſe.

"The celerity preſcribed to th attendants on a funeral is very rel gioufly obſerved: they always carr a corpſe with a quick pace. Rela tions and friends take the ſol charge of the coffin, four, ſix, o eight at a time relieving each othe ſucceſſively. Theſe are the la honours which are paid to blood o friendſhip. The ſultans themſelve uſe

ſed formerly to carry the bodies of heir predeceſſors, attended by the obles and principal perſonages of he ſtate.

" The coffin is always covered vith a plain ſtuff, and in general a iece of the veil conſecrated to the Keabé of Mecca is thrown over the pper part of it. It is of black ſilk, ntirely embroidered with paſſages f the Cour'ann: it is, however, nore commonly uſed for women nd children. As men are forbidden he uſe of ſilk, many prohibit its eing thrown over their coffins. They are in this reſpect more crüpulous at their death than dur- ng their life. Many families pur- chaſe at a high price theſe veils, which are revered as reliques, and employed only on this occaſion: the moſques ſupply thoſe who are in want of them. This is the only arti- cle which they provide for funerals.

" The coffin is carried with the head foremoſt, and this part of it is ornamented with the turban of the deceaſed: that of the women is with- out any decorations. The funeral is never attended by tapers or flambeaux. There is neither chanting nor in- cenſe. It is only at the funerals of ſovereigns, and of princes and prin- ceſſes of the blood, that the Muez- zinns chant, and then in a low voice. Before the corpſe are carried cen- ſers, Boukhourdann, of gold or ſilver, fuming with ambergris and aloes. This deviation from the law is reſerved as a diſtinction for the royal family. The women never attend; and the neareſt relations, in obedience to the law, combat by reſtraining their tears the tendereſt ſentiments of nature. This opinion is beſide conformable both to the extent which is allowed to the dogma of fatality, and to the glory which every Muſſulman attributes to himſelf when he follows the ex- ample of Mohammed, the founder of his religion.

" This extraordinary man ſhewed the moſt perfect reſignation at every misfortune, whether private or pub- lic. Among other examples, hiſtory mentions that on the death of Rou- kiyé, his daughter, who was married to Oſman, Mohammed was then on his celebrated expedition of Bedr- Oeuzma againſt the people of Mecca. He received this news with aſtoniſhing coolneſs; and with dry eyes he uttered theſe remarkable words, " Let us give thanks to God, and accept as a favour even the death and interment of our daughters."

" After this principle of reſigna- tion, which forbids a Muſſulman every external mark of ſorrow, no mourn- ing is ever worn. The Arabs for- merly wore it. Black was the co- lour adopted by the khaliphs Abaſ- ſides. Many ſovereign families, particularly the Beno-Bouyé, who reigned in Perſia and at Baghdad, as alſo the Fathimites of Egypt, uſed to wear mourning at the death of a monarch: that cuſtom was not how- ever general with regard to the nation, or to all the Mahometan courts. Under the firſt Othoman ſultans, they wore mourning only for the ſovereign, the princes of the blood, and ſometimes for the Va- lidé-Sultanas; but it never contin- nued more than three days: it was worn only by the new ſultan, and the principal officers of the court and ſeraglio. Some only covered their turban with a black muſlin, which they called Schemlé. Mohammed III. put on mourning for the grand- vezir Lala Mohammed Paſcha, for whom he had a ſtrong affection, and who died in 1004 (1595), the tenth day after his nomination. He went even to viſit his tomb, and gave bountifully

bountifully to the poor; these were honours which no other sultan ever paid to the memory of his ministers or favourites. Mourning was abolished at this court in the reign of Ibrahim I.

"They who do not profess the religion of Mohammed cannot attend the funeral of a mussulman; and no mahometan is allowed to be present at the interment of any one whose faith has been different from his own. They believe, in both these cases, that such a permission would defile religion, and vilify the dignity of Mussulmanism; on this subject, however, history presents an example worthy of notice.

"Under the reign of Melich-Schah, surnamed Djelal-ud-Dewleth, the fourth king of the Seldjoukian dynasty, which occupied near a century and a half the throne of Isfahan in Persia, Nizam'ul-Mulk, his prime minister, was so powerful, says Ahmed Efendy, that he followed no other law than his own will, and that of his favourites and creatures. He appointed a Jew, named Ibn-Allam, to be Mouhassil, or general receiver of the public taxes at Bassora, who became the object of such terror and respect in that city, that at the death of his wife, in 467 (1074), all the public officers and mahometan citizens, except the Cady, honoured her obsequies with their presence. The historian mentions this circumstance in terms of the greatest astonishment.

"All bodies, whether of men, women, or children, are interred with the right side turned towards Mecca. Immediately after the interment, the Imam on his knees, sitting by the side of the grave, says the prayer Telkinn. He begins by addressing the deceased three times, by his own name, and by that of his mother: he never mentions that of his father. If his mother's name be not known, for the men he substitutes that of Mary, in honour of the holy virgin, and for the women that of Eve, in honour of the common mother of mankind. This law is observed even with regard to the sultans, and to all the princes and princesses of the imperial family. The Imam thus addresses the deceased, Ya Ahmed, Ibn Meryem! Oh Ahmed son of Mary! Ya Fathima, binté Hewa! Oh Fathima, daughter of Eve! &c. He afterward recites the Telkinn, which is as follows: "Remember the moment when thou didst leave the world, making the following profession of thy faith: Assuredly, there is no God except God; he is alone, he is single, he allows no other being to be associated with himself; assuredly, Mohammed is the prophet of God; assuredly, paradise is real; assuredly, the resurrection is real; assuredly, the day of judgment is real and indisputable; assuredly, God will raise the dead, he will enable them to come forth from their tombs; assuredly, thou hast acknowledged God as thy Lord, Islamism as thy religion, Mohammed as thy prophet, the Cour'ann as thy Imam, the Keabé as thy Kiblé (that is, the sanctuary of Mecca as the place to which thy prayers were directed) and the faithful as thy brethren. God is my Lord, there is no other God but he; he is the master of the august and sacred throne of heaven. O N ..... say that thy God is thy Lord (this he repeats three times); O N ..... say that there is no God except God (which he also repeats three times); O N ..... say that Mohammed is the prophet of God, that thy religion is Islamism, and that thy prophet is Mohammed, upon whom be the salvation of peace

ace, and the mercy of the Lord. God, abandon us not; of all irs thou art the moſt valuable." ne Imam concludes this prayer th the Fatihha, the firſt chapter the Cour'ann.

" The ſame prayer ſerves ſomeies for the interment of ſeveral dies at once, as in time of war d of the plague, when the Imams nnot bury with that celerity ich the law requires: in theſe ſes only it is allowable to uſe for veral perſons the ſame funeral cemony.

" As the law forbids not only inrment, but alſo the funeral pray, in the moſques, the bodies are ways carried immediately from e houſes to the public burying-ounds: theſe are beyond the liits of the cities, and moſt of them ve the appearance of parks; they e planted with linden-trees, elms, ks, but particularly with cypreſs, hich is a favourite tree with the lahometans The principal buryg grounds of Conſtantinople are, thoſe of Eyub, on account of ne body of that ſaint, one of ne firſt Mahometan apoſtles, who buried in the ſuburb which bears is name; 2. thoſe of Aiwan-Seraih, here are depoſited the remains of ne twenty-ſix other diſciples of the rophet, who died under the walls f Conſtantinople, in the firſt atempts of the Mahometans againſt nat city, under the Khaliphat of Muawiye I. and, 3. thoſe of Scuaria in Aſia, a ſuburb ſeparated rom Conſtantinople by the Thraian Boſphorus Almoſt all the Oulemas, nobles, and principal ciizens, chuſe to be interred in the uring grounds of Scutary, as makng part of the continent on which re ſituated the two ſacred Arabian ities. This pious prevailing opiion is founded on a belief that Aſia is the only true country of the Mahometans; that it is the choſen continent reſerved for Iſlamiſm by the ſpecial favour of Providence; and that the remains of Muſſulmen reſt there in much greater ſecurity than in European ground, where, with more religion than policy, they conſider the Othoman power as leſs durable than in the Aſiatic countries.

" All the graves are, in general, covered with earth, and raiſed above the ground to prevent any one from walking over the bodies of Muſſulmen. There is no marble plate or monument whatever over the grave; it is covered with flowers, or with the apples of myrtle, yew, box, &c. Thoſe of the common people have only two flat or oval ſtones, placed vertically, at the extremities of the grave. Thoſe of the opulent citizens, and of perſons of a certain rank, are diſtinguiſhed by pieces of fine marble, of which that at the head is crowned with a marble turban. The form of this ſhews the rank and condition of the deceaſed, becauſe the different claſſes of citizens are diſtinguiſhed as much by the turban as by the reſt of their dreſs. The tombs of the women differ from thoſe of the men only in having the two ſocles uniform, flat, and terminated in a point.

" On each epitaphs are engraved in golden characters: they expreſs in general only the name of the deceaſed, his rank, the day of his death, and an exhortation to paſſengers to recite the Fatihha. Some of them exhibit diſtichs, quatrains, and ſtanzas of different length. Some deſcribe the fragility of the world, the duration of eternity, and expreſs wiſhes for the eternal felicity of the deceaſed. They are as follows: May the Almighty deign to wrap his ſoul in a cloud of mercy and

and gladneſs, and cover his tomb with the ſplendour of unceaſing light! others repreſent death as the limit of human miſeries in this ſhort and tranſitory life, congratulate the deceaſed upon his happineſs, and compare his ſoul to a nightingale in paradiſe; Djenneth-bulbuly. Others mention his virtues and his attachment to religion, and exhort thoſe who paſs by to pray for the repoſe of his ſoul, that he may better deſerve, on the day of judgment, the interceſſion of the prophet at the throne of the Almighty. Sometimes they conſiſt only of two verſes, This world is tranſitory, it has no continuance; to-day for me, to-morrow for thee. Upon thoſe of children of both ſexes, the grief of their parents is commonly expreſſed by lamentations againſt fate, which has had the cruelty it is ſaid, to pluck the roſe from the garden of delight and beauty, to tear a tender ſhrub from the boſom of its mother, and to caſt its unfortunate parents into the flaming furnace of grief and deſpair.

"The tombs of perſons of rank in the different orders of the ſtate, are much more diſtinguiſhed. They are ſurrounded with marble in the form of a cheſt, that part which is at the head and feet being always mo elevated."

"Thoſe of the principal Mahom tan Saints are a kind of citadel erected by the piety of monarchs of opulent individuals. Houſes diſtinction, particularly thoſe of th Oulemas, have vaults which ſer for the interment of their familie they call them Turbe, which mea a ſepulchral chapel. They ha nearly the ſame form as tho of the Sultans, ſuperb edific which are built round the imperi moſques. A deſcription of the will be afterward given, in the cha ter which mentions the Mahometa temples.

"Theſe mauſoleums are, in gen ral, the only monuments deſti ed to perpetuate the glory of m narchs, and that of the princip perſonages in the empire. Statue marble trophies, ſymbolical figur thoſe pieces of ſculpture whic adorn moſt of the European citi and churches, are unknown to Mu ſulmen. This is a natural conſe quence of their extending that pr hibition which forbids the paintin of men and animals; a circum ſtance which will be explained in th moral part of the preſent work."

CEREMONIES attending the INAUGURATION of th INFANT LAMA, in TIBET.

[From the Firſt Volume of the ASIATICK RESEARCHES.]

"THE emperor of China appears on this occaſion to have aſſumed a very conſpicuous part in giving teſtimony of his reſpect and zeal for the great religious father of his faith. Early in the year 1784, he diſmiſſed ambaſſadors from the court of Pekin to Teeſhoo Loom-boo, to repreſent their ſovereign in ſupporting the dignity of the hig prieſt, and do honour to the occa ſion of the aſſumption of his office Dalia Lama and the viceroy of La ſa, accompanied by all the cour one of the Chineſe generals ſta tioned at Laſſa with a part of th troops under his command, two o the four magiſtrates of the city th

e heads of every monaſtery roughout Tibet, and the empe-r's ambaſſadors, appeared at Tee-oo Loomboo to celebrate this epo-ha in their theological inſtitutions. he 28th day of the ſeventh moon, orreſponding nearly, as their year ommences with the vernal equinox, o the middle of October 1784, was hoſen as the moſt auſpicious for he ceremony of inauguration: a ew days previous to which the La-ha was conducted from Terpaling, he monaſtery in which he had paſſ-d his infancy, with every mark of omp and homage that could be aid by an enthuſiaſtic people. So reat a concourſe as aſſembled ei-her from curioſity or devotion was never ſeen before, for not a perſon of any condition in Tibet was ab-ent who could join the ſuite. The proceſſion was hence neceſſarily con-trained to move ſo ſlow, that tho' Terpaling is ſituated at the diſtance of twenty miles only from Teſhoo Loomboo, three days expired in the performance of this ſhort march. The firſt halt was made at Tſon-due; the ſecond at Summaar; about ſix miles off, whence the moſt ſplen-did parade was reſerved for the La-ma's entry on the third day; the account of which is given me by a perſon who was preſent in the pro-ceſſion. The road, he ſays, was previouſly prepared by being whitened with a waſh, and having piles of ſtones heaped up, with ſmall inter-vals between on either ſide. The retinue paſſed between a dou-ble row of prieſts, who formed a ſtreet extending all the way from Summaar to the gates of the palace. Some of the prieſts held lighted rods of a perfumed compoſition, that burn like decayed wood, and emit an aromatic ſmoke; the reſt were furniſhed with the different mu-ſical inſtruments they uſe at their devo-tions, ſuch as the gong, the cymbal, hautboy, trumpets, drums, and ſea-ſhells, which were all ſounded in union with the hymn they chanted. The croud of ſpectators were kept without the ſtreet, and none admit-ted on the high road but ſuch as properly belonged to or had a pre-ſcribed place in the proceſſion, which was arranged in the follow-ing order.

"The van was led by three milita-ry commandants or governors of diſtricts at the head of 6 or 7000 horſemen armed with quivers, bows, and matchlocks. In their rear fol-lowed the ambaſſador, with his ſuite, carrying his diploma, as is the cuſ-tom of China, made up in the form of a large tube, and faſtened on his back. Next the Chineſe general advanced with the troops under his command, mounted and accoutred after their way with fire-arms and ſabres; then came a very numerous group bearing the various ſtandards and inſignia of ſtate; next to them moved a full band of wind and other ſonorous inſtruments; after which were led two horſes richly ca-pariſoned, each carrying two large circular ſtoves diſpoſed like pan-niers acroſs the horſe's back and fill-ed with burning aromatic woods. Theſe were followed by a ſenior prieſt, called a Lama, who bore a box containing books of their form of prayer and ſome favourite idols. Next nine ſumptuary horſes were led loaded with the Lama's apparel; af-ter which came the prieſts immedi-ately attached to the Lama's perſon for the performance of daily offices in the temple, amounting to about 700; following them were two men each carrying on his ſhoulder a large cylindrical gold inſignium emboſſed with emblematical figures, (a gift from the Emperor of China). The Duhunniers and Soopoons, who were

were employed in communicating addreſſes and diſtributing alms, immediately preceded the Lama's bier, which was covered with a gaudy canopy and borne by eight of the ſixteen Chineſe appointed for this ſervice. On one ſide of the bier attended the regent, on the other the Lama's father. It was followed by the heads of the different monaſteries, and as the proceſſion advanced, the prieſts who formed the ſtreet fell in the rear and brought up the ſuite, which moved at an extremely ſlow pace, and about noon was received within the confines of the monaſtery amidſt an amazing diſplay of colours, the acclamations of the croud, ſolemn muſic, and the chanting of their prieſts.

The Lama being ſafely lodged in the palace, the Regent and Soopoon Choomboo went out, as is a cuſtomary compliment paid to viſitors of high rank on their near approach, to meet and conduct Dalai Lama and the Viceroy of Laſſa who were on the way to Teeſhoo Loomboo. Their retinues encountered the following morning at the foot of Painom caſtle, and the next day together entered the Monaſtery of Teeſhoo Loomboo, in which both Dalai Lama and the Viceroy were accommodated during their ſtay.

The following morning, which was the third after Teeſhoo Lama's arrival, he was carried to the great temple, and about noon ſeated upon the throne of his progenitors; At which time the emperor's ambaſſador delivered his diploma, and placed the preſents with which he had been charged at the Lama's feet.

The three next enſuing days, Dalai Lama met Teeſhoo Lama in the temple, where they were aſſiſted by all the prieſts in the invocation and public worſhip of their Gods. The rites then performed completed, as I underſtand, the buſineſs of inauguration. During this interval all who were at the capital, were entertained at the public expence, and alms were diſtributed without reſerve. In conformity likewiſe to previous notice circulated every where for the ſame ſpace of time, univerſal rejoicings prevailed throughout Tibet. Banners were unfurled on all their fortreſſes, the peaſantry filled up the day with muſic and feſtivity, and the night was celebrated by general illuminations. A long period was afterwards employed in making preſents and public entertainments to the newly inducted Lama, who at the time of his acceſſion to the Muſnud, or if I may uſe the term, pontificate, of Teeſhoo Loomboo, was not three years of age. The ceremony was begun by Dalai Lama, whoſe offerings are ſaid to have amounted to a greater value, and his public entertainments to have been more ſplendid, than the reſt. The ſecond day was dedicated to the Viceroy of Laſſa. The third to the Chineſe General. Then followed the Culloong or Magiſtrates of Laſſa, and the reſt of the principal perſons who had accompanied Dalai Lama. After which the Regent of Teeſhoo Loomboo, and all that were dependent on that government, were ſeverally admitted, according to pre-eminence of rank, to pay their tributes of obeiſance and reſpect. As ſoon as the acknowledgements of all thoſe were received who were admiſſible to the privilege, Teeſhoo Lama made, in the ſame order, ſuitable returns to each, and the conſummation laſted forty days.

Many importunities were uſed with Dalai Lama to prolong his ſtay at Teeſhoo Loomboo, but he excuſed himſelf

encumbering the capital any
er with so numerous a concourse
eople as attended on his move-
ts, and deeming it expedient to
e his absence as short as 'pos-
from the seat of his authority,
at the expiration of forty days he
withdrew with all his suite to Lassa,
and the emperor's ambassador re-
ceived his dismission to return to
China; and thus terminated this fa-
mous festival."

COUNT of the religious Sect of SEEKS, at PATNA,
a Letter from CHARLES WILKINS, Esq. to the Secretary of the
ASIATICK SOCIETY.

[From the same Work.]

I FOUND the college of the
Seeks, situated in one of the
ow streets of Patna, at no very
iderable distance from the cus-
-house. I was permitted to en-
the outward gate, but as soon
came to the steps, which led
to the chapel, or public hall, I
civilly accosted by two of the
iety. I asked them if I might
nd into the hall: they said it
a place of worship open to me
to all men; but at the same
e, intimated that I must take off
shoes. As I consider this cere-
ny in the same light as uncover-
my head upon entering any of
temples dedicated to the Deity,
id not hesitate to comply, and I
s then politely conducted into the
l, and seated upon a carpet in
midst of the assembly, which
s so numerous as almost to fill the
m. The whole building forms
quare of about forty feet, raised
m the ground about six or eight
ps. The hall is in the center,
ided from four other apartments
wooden arches, upon pillars of
e same materials, all neatly carv-
This room is rather longer
an it is broad. The floor was
vered with a neat carpet, and
rnished with six or seven low desks,
which stood as many of the books
their law; and the walls, above
the arches, were hung with Eu-
rope looking glasses in gold frames,
and pictures of Mussulman princes,
and Hindoo deities. A little room
which, as you enter, is situated at
the left hand end of the hall, is the
chancel, and is furnished with an
altar covered with a cloth of gold,
upon which was laid a round black
shield over a long broad sword, and
on either side, a chowry of pea-
cock's feathers, mounted in a silver
handle. The altar was raised a lit-
tle above the ground, in a declining
position. Before it stood a low kind
of throne plated with silver; but
rather too small to be useful; about
it were several silver flower pots
and rose-water bottles, and on the
left hand stood three small urns
which appeared to be copper, fur-
nished with notches to receive the
donations of the charitable. There
stood also near the altar, on a low
desk, a great book of a folio size,
from which some portions are daily
read in their divine service. It was
covered over with a blue mantle,
on which were printed, in silver let-
ters, some select passages of their
law.

"After I had had a long conversa-
sation with two of the congrega-
tion, who had politely seated them-
selves, on each side of me, on the
carpet, and whom I found very in-

telligent, notice was given, that it was noon and the hour of divine ſervice. The congregation arranged themſelves upon the carpet, on each ſide of the hall, ſo as to leave a ſpace before the altar from end to end. The great book, deſk, and, all, was brought, with ſome little ceremony from the altar, and placed at the oppoſite extremity of the hall. An old man, with a reverend ſilver beard, kneeled down before the deſk, with his face towards the altar; and on one ſide of him ſat a man with a ſmall drum, and two or three with cymbals. The book was now opened, and the old man began to chant to the time of the drum and the cymbals; and at the concluſion of every verſe, moſt of the congregation joined chorus in a reſponſe, with countenances exhibiting great marks of joy. Their tones were by no means harſh; the time was quick; and I learnt that the ſubject was a hymn in praiſe of the unity, the omnipreſence, and the omnipotence, of the Deity. I was ſingularly delighted with the geſtures of the old man: I never ſaw a countenance ſo expreſſive of infelt joy, whilſt he turned about from one to another, as it were, beſpeaking their aſſents to thoſe truths, which his very ſoul ſeemed to be engaged in chanting forth. The hymn being concluded which conſiſted of about twenty verſes, the whole congregation got up and preſented their faces with joined hands towards the altar, in the attitude of prayer. A young man now ſtood forth; and, with a loud voice and diſtinct accent, ſolemnly pronounced a long prayer or kind of liturgy, at certain periods of which all the people joined in a general reſponſe, ſaying *Wa Goorvo!* They prayed againſt temptation; for grace to do good; for the general good of mankind and a particular bleſſing to th Seeks: and for the ſafety of thoſ who at that time were on their tra vels. This prayer was followed b a ſhort bleſſing from the old man and an invitation to the aſſembly t partake of a friendly feaſt. Th book was then cloſed and reſtored t its place at the altar, and the peo ple being ſeated as before, two me entered, bearing a large iron cal dron, called a curray, juſt take from the fire, and placed it in th center of the hall, upon a low ſtoo Theſe were followed by others wit five or ſix diſhes, ſome of whic were of ſilver, and a large pile o leaves ſewed together with fibres i the form of plates. One of thei plates was given to each of th company without diſtinction, an the diſhes being filled from the cal dron, the contents were ſerve out till every one had got hi ſhare: myſelf was not forgotten and as I was reſolved not to giv them the ſmalleſt occaſion for of fence, I ate up my portion. It wa a kind of ſweetmeat, of the conſiſ tence of ſoft brown ſugar, compoſ ed of flour and ſugar mixed u with clarified butter, which is call ed ghee. Had not the ghee bee rancid I ſhould have reliſhed it bet ter. We were next ſerved with a few ſugar-plums; and here ende the feaſt and the ceremonies of th day. They told me the religiou part of the ceremony was daily re peated five times. I now took my leave, inviting ſome of the princi pal men amongſt them, who were about to return to their own coun try through Banaris, to pay me a viſit.

"In the courſe of the converſation I was engaged in with the two Seeks before the ſervice, I was able to ga ther the following circumſtances

Tha

at the founder of their faith was led Naneek Sah, who flouriſhed out four hundred years ago at njab, and who, before his apoſta- was a Hindoo of the Kſhetry, military tribe; and that his bo- diſappeared as the Hindoos and uſſulmans were diſputing for it; upon their removing the cloth ich covered it, it was gone. That left behind him a book, compoſ- by himſelf, in verſe and the lan- age of Punjab, but a character tly of his own invention; which ches the doctrines of the faith he l eſtabliſhed. That they call s character, in honour of their nder, Gooroo-Mookhee: from mouth of the preceptor; that s book, of which that ſtanding r the altar, and ſeveral others in hall, were copies, teaches that re is but one God, omnipotent l omnipreſent; filling all ſpace, l pervading all matter; and that is to be worſhipped and invoked. at there will be a day of retri- tion, when virtue will be re- rded and vice puniſhed, (I forgot aſk in what manner); that it not ly commands univerſal toleration, t forbids diſputes with thoſe of ther perſuaſion. That it for- s murder, theft, and ſuch other eds as are, by the majority of man- nd, eſteemed crimes againſt ſocie- ; and inculcates the practice of the virtues, but particularly, an iverſal philanthropy, and a ge- ral hoſpitality to ſtrangers and vellers. This is all my ſhort vi- would permit me to learn of this ok. It is a folio volume, con- ning about four or five hundred ges.

"They told me further, that ſome ars after this book of Naneek h had been promulgated, an- ner made its appearance, now held almoſt as much eſteem as the for- mer. The name of the author has eſcaped my memory; but they fa- voured me with an extract from the book itſelf in praiſe of the deity: The paſſage had ſtruck my ear on the firſt entering the hall, when the ſtudents were all engaged in read- ing. From the ſimilarity of the language to the Hindovee, and ma- ny Shanſcrit words, I was able to underſtand a good deal of it, and I hope, at ſome future period, to have the honour of laying a tranſ- lation of it before the Society. They told me I might have copies of both their books, if I would be at the expence of tranſcribing them.

I next enquired why they were called Seeks, and they told me it was a word borrowed from one of the commandments of their founder which ſignifies "Learn thou;" and that it was adopted to diſtinguiſh the ſect ſoon after he diſappeared. The word, as is well known, has the ſame import in the Hindoovee.

"I aſked them what were the ce- remonies uſed in admitting a pro- ſelyte. A perſon having ſhewn a ſincere inclination to renounce his former opinions, to any five or more Seeks aſſembled together, in any place, as well on the highway as in a houſe of worſhip, they ſend to the firſt ſhop where ſweetmeats are ſold, and procure a ſmall quantity of a particular ſort, which is very com- mon, and, as I recollect, they call Bataſa, and having diluted it in pure water, they ſprinkle ſome of it on the body, and into the eyes of the convert, whilſt one of the beſt inſtructed repeats to him, in any language with which he is conver- ſant, the chief canons of their faith, exacting from him a ſolemn pro- miſe to abide by them the reſt of his life. This is the whole of the ceremony. The new convert may

then chooſe a Gooroo, or preceptor, to teach him the language of their ſcriptures, who firſt gives him the alphabet to learn, and ſo leads him on, by ſlow degrees, until he wants no inſtruction. They offered to admit me into their Society; but I declined the honour; contenting myſelf with the alphabet which they told me to guard as the apple of my eye, as it was a ſacred character. I find it differs but li from the Dewnagur: the numb order, and powers of the lett are exactly the ſame. The l guage itſelf is a mixture of Perſi Arabic, and ſome Shanſcrit, gra ed upon the provincial dialect Punjab, which is a kind of Hind vee, or, as it is vulgarly called us, Moors."

Some ACCOUNT of the CAFFRES.

[Extracted from PATTERSON's Narrative of Four Journeys into Country of the HOTTENTOTS, &c.]

"ABOUT eight in the evening we met three of the Caffres, who were much ſurpriſed at our appearance, as we were certainly the firſt Europeans they had ever ſeen. They ſpeedily returned and alarmed the whole village before we arrived; but on our arrival, they received us kindly, brought us milk, and offered us a fat bullock ageeeably to their uſual hoſpitable cuſtom. This village conſiſted of about fifty houſes, ſituate on the banks of a pleaſant river, called in the Caffre language Mugu Ranie; and it belongs to their chief. It contained about three hundred inhabitants, all of whom were ſervants or ſoldiers to their chief, who was likewiſe the proprietor of the numerous herds of cattle. Theſe people ſubſiſt on the milk of their cows, and on game, not being allowed to kill any of their cattle. The men milk the cows, and the women take care of the gardens and corn.

"We were accompanied by all theſe people from one village to another, till we arrived at the place belonging to the perſon whom they denominate their chief or king. His habitation was ſituate on a pl ſant river, called Becha Cum, Milk River. Indeed all th houſes are built on the banks of vers or ſtreams: but there was corn or garden near it. The ch had about an hundred cows, wh ſupplied him and his houſhold w milk. His family conſiſted of abo twenty-two ſervants, who attend him wherever he went. On arrival he ſeemed very ſhy, a kept at a great diſtance for abo an hour, when a number of Caff met and accompanied him to houſe. He ſoon afterwards ſ one of his ſervants to invite us t ther. The firſt thing I preſent him with, was ſome beads, of wh he freely accepted. I alſo offe him ſome of our tobacco: but ſeemed to prefer his own, wh was much lighter. He ſoon off ed me a herd of fat bullocks in turn; but I refuſed to take the which ſeemed to affront him gre ly, and he often repeated, "W do you think of our country After a few words between us, accepted of one, which we imm diately ſhot; this ſurpriſed all t ſpectators, who were about ſix hu

di

perſons, few of them having ſeen a gun, or heard the re- of one. We had a part of the ock dreſſed, which I thought h ſuperior to the beef near the e. The reſt of the animal I ibuted to the king and his ſer- s. He ſtill ſeemed diſpleaſed I would accept of nothing more eturn. I then aſked him for e of their baſkets, which he gave and alſo two of their lances or agais, which they make with t ingenuity; but the conſtruc- of the baſkets, which are made heir women, is much more ſur- ing; they are compoſed of s, and woven ſo cloſely that they capable of holding any fluid. outa, the chief, intreated me to ain with him a few days; this ever, we did not conſent to; after much perſuaſion, agreed ſtay all night. In the afternoon nged the neighbouring woods in ch of plants, and at night re- ned to my companion, who ſtaid the Becha Cum. As the wea- r was hot, we choſe to ſleep in woods rather than in any of the s. During the night I obſerved t there were two guards placed each ſide the door of the chief's ſe, who were relieved about eve- two hours.

"On the ninth, I propoſed to pro- d farther to the eaſt, allured by pleaſantneſs of the country, and affording variety of unknown nts, but found there was a river ittle to the eaſtward of us, called the natives the Kys Comma. e then determined to return the ne way we came. The large lm, grows here in abundance, and uſed for bread by the Caffres as ll as the Hottentots. They take e pith of this plant, and after col- ting a ſufficient quantity let it lie ſeveral days till it becomes a little four; after this they bake it in an oven which is erected for the pur- poſe. They alſo bake bread of their own corn, which is the ſame as the Guinea corn. But this grain is moſtly uſed for making punch, called by ſome of them Pombie, which is ſtrong and intoxicating. They make conſiderable uſe of a plant, called by the natives plan- tains, which grows ſpontaneouſly on the banks of the rivers, and in the woods. The pods of this plant are triangular, and about the ſize of a prickly cucumber. I found none of them in flower, but ſeveral in fruit; the ſeed is about as large as a pea; and I believe it to be what Dr. Tunberg calls the Helaconia Caffraria.

"The men amongſt the Caffres are from five feet ten inches to ſix feet high, and well proportioned, and in general evince great courage in at- tacking lions, or any beaſts of prey. This nation is now divided into two parties; to the northward are a number of them commanded by one Chatha Bea, or Tambuſhie, who has obtained the latter denomination from his mother, a woman of the tribe of Hottentots called Tambu- kies. This man was the ſon of a chief, called Pharoa, who died about three years before, and left two ſons, Cha Cha Bea, and another named Dſirika, who claimed the ſupreme authority on account of his mother being of the Caffre nation. This occaſioned a conteſt between the two brothers, in the courſe of which Cha Cha Bea was driven out of his territories, with a number of his adherents. The unfortunate chief travelled about an hundred miles to the northward of Khouta, where he now reſides, and has entered in- to an alliance with the Boſhmen Hottentots.

"The colour of the Caffres is a

jet black, their teeth white as ivory, and their eyes large. The cloathing of both ſexes is nearly the ſame, conſiſting entirely of the hides of oxen, which are as pliant as cloth. The men wear tails of different animals tied round their thighs, pieces of braſs in their hair, and large ivory rings on their arms; they are alſo adorned with the hair of lions, and feathers faſtened on their heads, with many other fantaſtical ornaments. When they are about nine years of age they undergo the operation of being circumciſed, and afterwards wear a muzzle of leather which covers the extremity of the penis, and is ſuſpended by a leathern thong from their middle. This covering is in general ornamented with beads and braſs rings, which they purchaſe from the Hottentots for tobacco and Dacka. They are extremely fond of dogs, which they exchange for cattle, and to ſuch a height do they carry this paſſion, that if one particularly pleaſes them, they will give two bullocks in exchange for it. Their whole exerciſe through the day is hunting, fighting, or dancing. They are expert in throwing their lances, and in time of war uſe ſhields ma of the hides of oxen. The wom are employed in the cultivation their gardens and corn. They c tivate ſeveral vegetables, which a not indigenous to their countr ſuch as tobacco, water-melons, ſmall ſort of kidney beans, a hemp, none of which I fou growing ſpontaneouſly. The w men make their baſkets, and t mats which they ſleep on. T men have great pride in their cattl they cut their horns in ſuch a w as to be able to turn them into a ſhape they pleaſe, and teach the to anſwer a whiſtle. Some of the uſe an inſtrument for this purpo ſimilar to a Boſhman's pipe. Wh they wiſh their cattle to retu home, they go a little way fro the houſe and blow this ſmall i ſtrument, which is made of ivo or bone, and ſo conſtructed as to heard at a great diſtance, and in t manner bring all their cattle hom without any difficulty. The ſoil this country is a blackiſh loor ground, and ſo extremely ferti that every vegetable ſubſtance, wh ther ſown or planted, grows he with great luxuriance."

CHARACTER of the SPANISH LADIES, with ſome Account of the SPANISH DIVERSIONS.

[From the Second Volume of the Chevalier DE BOURGOANNE's Trav in SPAIN.]

"THE women of every country have particular charms by which they are characteriſed. In England, by the elegance of their ſhape, and modeſty of their carriage; in Germany by freſhneſs of complexion, and in France by that amiable gaiety which animates all their features. The charm felt on approaching a Spaniſh lady, has ſomething of deception which not eaſily defined. It owes but l tle to the aid of the toilet. T complexion of a Spaniſh beauty never ornamented with borrow brilliance: art ſupplies not the c louring which nature has refuſ by expoſing her to the influence a burning climate. But by h many beauties is ſhe recompen

r her paleneſs? Where are finer apes, greater eaſe in every mo-n, or ſofter delicacy of feature be found than among the Spa-ſh beauties? Grave, and rather elancholy, at firſt ſight, yet ſhould ne of theſe fair ones open on you r large black eyes, full of expreſ-on, ſhould ſhe accompany her ances with a ſmile, inſenſibility elf falls at her feet. But if the ldneſs of her reception diſcou-ge not her admirer from ad-reſſing her, ſhe is as decided and ortifying in her diſdain, as ſhe ſeducing in permitting him to ope.

" In the laſt caſe ſhe leaves him o room to fear a long cruelty; ut perſeverance, which in other ountries accelerates the *denouement*, uſt ſurvive it in Spain, and be-omes a ſevere duty. The fortu-ate men whom ſhe deigns to con-uer, and who are called *Cortejos*, re leſs diſintereſted but not leſs ſſiduous than the cicisbei of Italy. total ſacrifice is required of them. hey muſt give proofs of this at all ours of the day, accompany the ady to the public walk, the thea-res, and even the confeſſional. But what is particular in this kind of ntimacy, is that two perſons thus nited by a ſentiment which ſeems nexhauſtible, are frequently ſilent, nelancholy, and appear not as in ther places, happy in the happi-neſs of each other's company. I know not if I injure the Spaniſh air ſex; but I am diſpoſed to be-ieve, their chains are not ſo eaſy to e borne, as difficult to avoid. The Spaniſh beauty is ſaid to be very ri-gorous in many reſpects; her ca-prices are ſometimes rather haſty, and too obedient to the impulſe of n ardent imagination. But that which is not eaſy to conciliate with her eternally varying fancies, and concurs with a thouſand other ob-ſervations to prove the incoherency of the human heart, both in male and female, is the conſtancy of Spaniſh women in their attachments. The intoxication they cauſe and experience, far different from all extreme agitations or affections of the mind, which continue but a ſhort time, is prolonged greatly beyond the common term; and I ſaw, during my reſidence in Spain, more than one ſuch paſſion continue conſtant till the parties expired with old age. I have frequently ſought for the reaſon of this conſtancy; which diſconcerted all my ideas, and have imagined it to be in a religious ſcruple, certainly ill underſtood, as moſt ſuch ſcruples are. Perhaps ſaid I to myſelf, the conſcience of a Spaniſh lady, ſufficiently complaiſant to permit her one gratification which offends her duty, would be terrified at a ſucceſſion of infidelities. In the firſt ſhe may poſſibly find an excuſe in human infirmity, in the irreſiſtible wiſh of the heart, which inclines her towards one object, deſtined by nature to fix her affections.

" It belongs to thoſe who are acquainted with the female heart and conſcience to judge of this conjecture. It is certain, that in Spain, more than in any other country, both men and women appear to conciliate the irregularity of manners with the moſt ſcrupulous obſervance of religious duties, and even with the mockeries of ſuperſtition. In many countries theſe exceſſes alternately ſucceed each other. In Spain they are ſimultaneous; and the women, in conſequence of this ſtrange mixture of religion and frailty, ſeem to aim leſs to prevent ſcandal, or conceal their conduct, than to eſtabliſh a kind of equilibrium between their

faults and their merits; an incoherence in which both ſexes appeared to me to participate. It is the conſequence of error and weakneſs, and the moſt ſerious reproach I have to make that nation.

"How many men have I known, who, though they led an extreme diſorderly life, frequented public worſhip with an aſſiduity, which even true Chriſtians do not conſider as an indiſpenſible duty, carefully obſerved every injunction of the church relative to abſtinence, and rendered to the miniſters almoſt degrading homages?—How many women abandoned to an attachment utterly inconſiſtent with their duty, are ſurrounded with relics, cover themſelves with a ſcapulary, oblige themſelves by vows to the performance of actions indifferent in their own nature, and ſcrupuloufly fulfil them. I believe hypocrites to be very rare in Spain; but to compenſate for this the ridiculous aſſociation of certain moral improprieties with ſuperſtitious practices, is more common there than elſewhere. Muſt this be attributed to a want of knowledge, or the criminal complaiſance of the directors of conſcience, who are thus prodigal of the indulgence of which they themſelves ſtand in need? Or is it the climate which muſt ſerve as an excuſe for ſome vices, as it is the cauſe of ſome virtues; does it command the gratification of certain frailties too imperiouſly for conſciences, ſcrupulous in other reſpects, to be terrified from yielding compliance?

"To endeavour to explain the diſſoluteneſs of morals, is to acknowledge it exiſts, and notwithſtanding my favourable opinion of the Spaniards, I cannot but confeſs this charge. More faithful, however, to the reſolution I have formed to be impartial, I muſt add, tha this depravity is not ſo general a libertines, who always exaggerat their indiſcretions, are pleaſed t ſay it is; that there are even a Madrid families exemplary in thei conduct, faithful huſbands, an wives who in other countrie would be models of modeſty an propriety; that their daughters, al though in general not reſerved i their carriage, promiſe much mor than they grant, and that nothin is more rare than their anticipatio of the rights of matrimony; tha if opportunities of purchaſing plea ſures equally ſhameful and eaſy t obtain, are frequent for thoſe wh ſeek them, at leaſt proſtitution i neither ſo public nor impudent a in other countries; and that th police, by ſeverely prohibiting it ſcandalous ſeminaries, obliges it t conceal itſelf, and ſometimes pur ſues it to its ſecret retreats. I ſhal farther obſerve, that women rigo rouſly baniſh from their ſociety thoſe familiarities which are conſi dered as indifferent by other nations where the ſenſes, not ſo quickly in flamed, more ſlowly betray their diſ order; and that this diſtruſt o themſelves is at leaſt an homage which their weakneſs renders to mo deſty. But provided they be not too nearly approached, they permit and ſometimes provoke thoſe allure ments at which decency is in other places alarmed.

"They pardon equivoque, obſcenity, indelicate deſcriptions, all witticiſms and indiſcreet expreſſions. The free manner in which they explain themſelves in ſome inſtances, cannot but aſtoniſh a ſtranger accuſtomed to convey his thoughts on ſimilar occaſions under a thicker veil. The Engliſh women have an extremely delicate and pure imagination, and no perſon would dare

o wound their ears with an expreſ-
ion in the leaſt tending to indecen-
y. It is ſaid, they carry reſerve
n this reſpect to that degree of ex-
eſs which we ſhould call prudery.
rench women, who do not repel
he ſallies of an innocent gaiety, but
vhoſe decency impreſſes awe upon
ffrontery, are, in their turn, prudes
n compariſon to the Spaniſh wo-
nen. I have ſeen the latter hear
vithout a bluſh, and even permit
hemſelves expreſſions which men of
ut few ſcruples would have reſerv-
d for the orgies of debauchery. I
ave heard ſeveral of them ſing cou-
lets which breathed ſomething
nore than voluptuouſneſs, and left
he penetration of the hearer no-
hing to imagine. This circum-
tance alone however, would not be
ufficient to prove the depravity of
nanners in Spain.

"Purity of morals is certainly not
matter of convention. In every
ountry depravity is nearly the
ame, except the modifications given
t by law and religion. The moral
urity of language is ſomething
ifferent; this varies according to
ime and place; it depends upon cli-
nate, cuſtom, manners, and genius
f language. Women who per-
nit themſelves freedom of expreſ-
ion, and give the example of it,
re certainly not on that account
nore ſeducing to perſons of delica-
y, but they are not more eaſily ſe-
luced. The woman who jeſts with
ice is, perhaps, farther removed
rom it than ſhe who carefully re-
els it from her imagination, from
conviction of her own weakneſs;
eſides, as it has frequently been
emarked, manners are never more
orrupted than when the moral pu-
ity of language is carried to the
noſt ſcrupulous exceſs; becauſe
hen every mind is filled with de-
raved ideas, and the greateſt pre-
caution muſt be taken that they
may not be awakened. On the
contrary, a nation not yet corrupt-
ed by exceſs of civiliſation, may
have in its language a kind of in-
genuouſneſs which renders expreſ-
ſions far from entirely chaſte; and
when, like our firſt parents, it be-
gins to bluſh at its nakedneſs, we
may be ſure that, like them, it has
no longer preſerved its innocence.

"This, however, is not the caſe of
the Spaniſh nation. I have only
wiſhed to prove that the liberties
the Spaniſh permit themſelves in
their language, may nevertheleſs be
reconciled with much purer man-
ners. I ſhould be inclined to
believe theſe modes of expreſ-
ſion, ſhocking to the decency of
other nations, would diſappear by a
more refined civiliſation, more pre-
cautions in the education of young
perſons, almoſt excluſively aban-
doned to the government of ſer-
vants, even in the moſt diſtinguiſh-
ed houſes, and eſpecially by better
example, the moſt efficacious of all
educations. But can a young lady,
who from the moſt tender age has
been familiariſed to the groſſeſt ex-
preſſions which her preſence com-
mands not reſpect enough to re-
preſs; who in companies, to which
ſhe is frequently admitted, hears
applauſe beſtowed on impudence,
which diſdains to throw a tranſpa-
rent veil even over the obſcenities
in which it indulges; can one,
whoſe ears are early accuſtomed to
the indecent expreſſions which are
permitted on the ſtage, and whoſe
eyes repeatedly behold the wanton
attitudes exhibited in the favourite
Spaniſh dance, long preſerve in her
imagination and language that vir-
gin purity which is, perhaps, the
greateſt charm of her ſex?

"The dance I allude to, is the fa-
mous Fandango, at which foreigners
are

equally aſtoniſhed and offended, but to which they ſoon become more than partial.

"No ſooner is this begun at a ball, than every countenance becomes animated, and even thoſe who by their age and profeſſion are moſt obliged to gravity, have much difficulty in preventing themſelves from joining in the cadence. It is related, on this ſubject, that the court of Rome, ſcandalized that a country, renowned for the purity of its faith, ſhould not have long before proſcribed this profane dance, reſolved to pronounce its formal condemnation. A conſiſtory aſſembled, the proſecution of the Fandango was begun, according to rule; and ſentence was about to be thundered againſt it, when one of the judges judiciouſly obſerved, that a criminal ought not to be condemned without being heard. The obſervation had weight with the aſſembly. Two Spaniards were brought before it, and to the ſound of inſtruments diſplayed all the graces of the Fandango. The ſeverity of the judges, was not proof againſt the exhibition; their auſtere countenances began to relax; they roſe from their ſeats, and their arms and legs ſoon found their former ſuppleneſs. The conſiſtory-hall was changed into a dancing-room, and the Fandango was acquitted.

"After ſuch a triumph, it may be imagined that the remonſtrances of decency have but little effect; its empire ſeems to be firmly eſtabliſhed. It is, however, different according to the places in which it is practiſed. It is frequently called for at the theatre, and generally cloſes private dances. In theſe caſes the intention is no more than lightly indicated; but, on other occaſions, when a few perſons aſſembled ſeem wantonly to ſhake off all ſcruples, the meaning is then ſo marked, that voluptuouſneſs aſſails the mind at every avenue; its incitements cauſe the heart of the modeſt youth to palpitate with deſire, and reanimate the deadened ſenſes of old age. The fandango is danced by two perſons only, who never touch ſo much as even the hand of each other; but when we view their reciprocal allurements, their retreats and approaches; when we obſerve the female, in the moment when her langour announces an approaching defeat, ſuddenly acquire new courage to eſcape from her conqueror, who purſues her, and is purſued in his turn; the manner in which theſe emotions are expreſſed by their looks, geſtures and attitudes, it is impoſſible not to confeſs with a bluſh, that theſe ſcenes are, to the real combats of Cytherea, what our military evolutions in peace are to the real diſplay of the art of war. The *Seguidilla* is another dance peculiar to the Spaniards. The figure is formed by eight perſons; at each corner the four couple retrace, although but momentarily the principal movements of the Fandango. A Spaniſh female, dancing the Seguidilla, dreſſed in character, accompanying the inſtruments with caſtanets, and marking the meaſure with her heel with uncommon preciſion, is certainly one of the moſt ſeducing objects which love can employ to extend his empire.

"The Spaniſh nation has a decided taſte for dancing, and the greateſt aptitude to excel in the art. Beſides the dances peculiar to the nation they have adopted thoſe of other countries without excepting the minuet; but the noble, decent, and eaſy graces of this dance eſcape them. It appears, however, to have many attractions in the eyes of the Spaniards, and makes

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an essential part of their education. Each ball has a president, who, under the name of Bastonero, is to make every body dance the minuet, and who, notwithstanding his utmost endeavours to consult the inclination of every one, in forming the couples, never fails to give offence to some. In the reign of Philip V. masquerades were forbidden throughout all Spain. The count de Aranda, who while attentive to the police of the capital, did not neglect its pleasures, had revived the public balls, and proscribed masquerades under Philip; but these two amusements, which in other places are considered as innocent, survived not the retreat of the minister, and being disused when his administration ceased, added to the regret of the inhabitants of the capital.

"The Spaniards are therefore reduced, for public diversions, to bull fights, and the national spectacles of which we shall hereafter take notice Their private pleasures have something of the gravity which appears, at least, in the exterior of their persons. The game to which the common people seem most attached is a feeble and spiritless image of the games which kept the strength and address of the ancients in continual activity. It is called *El juego de la barra*, and consists in throwing a bar of iron to a certain distance.

"People of fashion have recreations of another kind. In general they seldom assemble to eat at each others houses; and this is undoubtedly one of the circumstances which contributes to their reputation for sobriety. They are little acquainted with the innocent and healthful pleasures of the country. But few among them are fond of the chace, of which the monarch and his family seem to possess the exclusive privilege. The amusements of the country appear to have no attractions for the Spaniards. Their country-houses might easily be numbered. Among the many rich individuals who inhabit the capital, there are, perhaps, not ten who have a country retreat. With respect to the castles, seats, &c. so numerous in France, England, and Italy, and which contribute to the embellishment of the environs of their capitals, there are so few in the vicinage of Madrid and the rest of the peninsula, that many travellers are of opinion the proverbial expression, building castles in Spain, is thence derived.

"The rich subjects of the kingdom therefore concentrate all their pleasures within the cities. Music is one of those for which the Spaniards have the greatest taste. They cultivate this art with success. Not that their national music has made any great progress. If it has a particular character, it is to be found mostly in little detached airs, called in Spain, Tanadillas and Seguidillas; sometimes agreeable melodies, but of which the modulations are little varied, and prove that the art of composition is still in its infancy. In return for this they do the greatest justice to the grand compositions of Germany and Italy, which always form a part of their frequent concerts; but they have the most profound contempt for French music, which, in their opinion, is languid and monotonous, not excepting the Vaudeville. Their prejudice, in this respect, is carried to such a height, that an Italian air would become displeasing to them by appearing in the livery of French words; so vain are they of their sonorous and cadenced language, and so persuaded that French syllables, by turns, mute and nasal, exclude

exclude the language from the poſſibility of being adapted to muſic. They have many lovers of harmony, but few compoſers worthy of notice.

"A young poet at Madrid produced a few years ſince a poem on muſic, wherein didactic dryneſs is compenſated by ſeveral epiſodes, and brilliancy of imagination. Connoiſſeurs aſſure us, that the character of Spaniſh muſic in particular is there given by a maſterly hand; but many examples muſt be added to the precepts contained in the poem, before it can be reliſhed by the reſt of Europe.

"Balls and concerts are not the only entertainments at which the Spaniards aſſemble. They have alſo their Tertulias and Refreſcos. The Tertulias are aſſemblies very ſimilar to thoſe of France. Perhaps more liberty reigns in the former, but langour ſometimes eſtabliſhes its throne there as well as in the midſt of our circles.

"Women in general ſeek not many occaſions to aſſemble; each aſpires to be the center of a Tertulia; and excluſive pretenſions undoubtedly contribute to baniſh from Spaniſh ſocieties what we call French gallantry. Women are there admired, and even adored, as well as elſewhere; but when they inſpire not a lively ſentiment, the men ſeldom pay them thoſe attentions which our politeneſs prodigally and indiſcriminately beſtows upon every individual of the amiable ſex. It is not in the reciprocal communication of tenderneſs that manners are ſoftened. The language of mere politeneſs is too cold for love: that impetuous paſſion commands and exacts ſacrifices, but deſpiſes ſimple reſpect. On the contrary, it is in the diſintereſted aſſociation of the two ſexes that the neceſſity and mutual deſire of pleaſing ariſes which forms the charm and cement of Society. This is perhaps, the only means wanting to the Spaniards to accompliſh the poliſhing of their manners.

"Their Refreſcos, the invention of luxury and greedineſs, contribute no leſs than the Tertulias to facilitate the intercourſe of the two ſexes. In general, theſe are only light repaſts, prepared for perſons from whom viſits are received, and are as a prelude to the Tertulias; but on great occaſions, when a wedding, chriſtening, or the birth-day of the head of a family is to be celebrated, the Refreſco becomes an important and a very expenſive affair. All the family acquaintance are invited; and, in proportion as they arrive, the men ſeparate from the women. The latter take their ſeats in a particular chamber, and etiquette requires they ſhould remain alone until all the company be aſſembled, or at leaſt until the men ſtand up without approaching them. The lady of the houſe waits for them under a canopy, in a place ſet apart in the hall, which in ancient manners, not yet entirely aboliſhed, was called the Eſtrado, over which is commonly ſuſpended an image of the Virgin. The appearance of the Refreſco, at length, enlivens every countenance, and infuſes joy into every heart; converſation becomes animated, and the ſexes approach each other. The company are firſt preſented with great glaſſes of water, in which little ſugar-loaves, called *Azucar eſponjado*, or *roſado*, ſquare and of a very ſpongy ſubſtance, are diſſolved; theſe are ſucceeded by chocolate, the favourite refreſhment twice a day of the Spaniards, and which is believed to be ſo nouriſhing, or at leaſt innocent, that it is

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not refuſed to perſons dangerouſly ill. After the chocolate come all ſorts of confectionary.

"It is ſcarcely poſſible to conceive the profuſion with which all theſe delicacies are diſtributed. People are not only cloyed with them in the houſe of feſtivity, but they put quantities of them into paper, and even into their hats and handkerchiefs; and the ſervants are ſpeedily diſpatched home with the precious ſavings, which undoubtedly ſerve to furniſh the table of more than one miſer for ſeveral days. There is ſomething odd in this general rapaciouſneſs; and a ſtranger admitted, for the firſt time, to theſe kind of feſtivals, in which intoxicating liquors only are ſpared, ſeeks to diſcover the ſober nation and finds it not. It may be imagined that ſuch entertainments muſt weigh heavily on the œconomy of many individuals; moſt people regret the cuſtom which makes them neceſſary on certain occaſions; but, as is the caſe with all abuſes become ſacred by length of time, nobody has ſufficient courage to be the firſt to ſhake off the yoke.

"A ball or card-tables commonly ſucceed to the Refreſco; but it very ſeldom happens that the entertainment is concluded with a ſupper. This is always a very frugal repaſt with the Spaniards, and at which they rarely aſſemble."

OBSERVATIONS on the PIRATICAL STATES, and the probable Means of civilizing them.

[From the Firſt Volume of Letters from Barbary, France, Spain and Portugal, by an Engliſh Officer.]

"I am frequently in doubt if the life and manners of ſuch a people as this deſerve much of our time and attention, though full of great leſſons for governments and princes. Many things might doubtleſs be found to ſatisfy the hiſtorical curioſity of the antiquarian, but I am looking only for things of utility, or what I may fancy to be ſuch. We might diſcover here arts, cuſtoms, ſuperſtitions, which might be traced to Aſia, and to the remoteſt antiquity: ſo we may, in various parts of Europe. Such may be the cuſtom of preſents, their funerals, and reſpect for the dead, their tools, ornaments, dreſs, recreations, ceremonies, domeſtic employments. Though the arts and manners of periods which we have paſſed and left behind may be more the objects of curioſity than of utility; yet in the loweſt condition of human nature, we may ſtumble upon ſomething unexpectedly uſeful, and every ſtate may furniſh matter for inſtructive reflection. We were wiſhing the other day that our Engliſh cooks were to learn here ſome of their œconomical and ſavoury methods of dreſſing ſome viands and vegetables, in the ſteam of the pot; and that our country carpenters and other tradeſmen might learn ſome of their ſimple ways of working, and of executing great works with ſo few tools and ſo little aſſiſtance. The moſt poliſhed nations may find ſomething to learn from the moſt ſavage. In the mountains, and in the country, men make their own ſhoes, furniture, and utenſils, which in the towns is the work of ſeparate profeſſions. Many ſeem to paſs their time chiefly between ſitting, ſmoaking,

ſmoaking, and ſleeping, all of which they prolong much beyond what is uſual in Europe. How ſo many can be maintained in idleneſs, and by what labour, of which ſo little is to be ſeen in the country, can only be accounted for from their wants being few.

"Sometimes they take fits of riding, which they perform in the other extreme of rude exertion, uſing the poor horſe with a roughneſs and violence fitter for a wild beaſt that they wiſhed to tame, with a bridle and ſpurs of a tremendous and cruel conſtruction, which preſently make his mouth and ſides run with blood. Theſe riding-fits which they ſometimes take, ſeemingly a-propos to nothing, they conſider as a kind of war exerciſe: the moment any of theſe fellows gets upon a horſe, he thinks of fighting, and begins to go through the motions of it, brandiſhing and attacking in their way, ſo that you would think him half mad. Individually they may be conſidered as tolerably good light-horſe, or rather as materials *pour en faire*, if they could be brought to any regularity and uniformity in their movements, in ſome of which they are ſingly very dexterous: their methods of attack, with their crooked ſwords, the variety and frequency of their charges, might be made to have great effect, eſpecially on troops unaccuſtomed to them. I believe general Seidlitz borrowed many of his excellent ideas of cavalry from Turks and Tartars, ſuch troops as theſe. They have no idea of any regular drill or exerciſe. They ſometimes fire and throw darts at a mark—generally at an earthen pot or a blown bladder, very near, under fifty yards. But their boar-hunt is a fine manly diverſion. Their foot-ball, or pallone, as in Italy, is good exerciſe. Some jugglers and ſtory-tellers, who exhibit ſometimes to the crowd on a market-day, form the ſum of their public diverſions.

"The beſt part of this government is the continuance of the old and warlike practice of the prince or chief appearing frequently among his people on horſeback: it is now become a regular audience or levee two or three times a week; a thing ſo unexpected in ſuch a country. This cuſtom ſerves to check ſo many abuſes, and to keep ſo many people in awe, that I ſuppoſe this kind of government could not go on without it. Under a really great and wiſe prince it might be made the means of doing much good; arts, induſtry, public virtue, might thereby perhaps be conſiderably promoted, all in their own ſimple and direct manner. If it were poſſible for uncontrolled power to be ſteady, uniform, or conſiſtent, in its proceedings; if theſe general orders of the emperor, iſſued verbally at levees, proceeded from a wiſe and connected plan, and were firmly carried into execution; they might in time have almoſt the force of laws, and might extend much farther throughout the country, poſſeſſing the great advantages of military orders, in promptitude and obedience; but, alas! no human individual, and ſtill leſs a ſucceſſion of them, can probably ever be found equal to ſuch a ſituation as his. To do any good ſeems to require all the wiſdom of the moſt enlightened nation.—How little can be done by an ignorant deſpot is eaſy to imagine.

"We do not hear of any one who is fit to ſucceed Muley Idris (the preſent emperor's uncle, who is dying), or who can equal him in addreſs, artifice, extortion, or in the management of the public buſineſs here;

e; so that the emperor must now
ve upon his own shoulders the
ole business of the nation, which
l not therefore be better nor more
peditiously done: he cannot de-
ate power sufficient for any bu-
ess; he has confidence in no man;
trusting this uncle so much,
med partly from early habits.
s physician, your poor Portu-
ese doctor Don Juan, we hear
l be in danger if this prince
s; it seems it is not uncommon
e to put a doctor to death for
ing his patient die—if a prince
a great man.

"Their money, weights, and
asures you there know with their
mmerce. The ideas of the wisest
e on those subjects you may be
e are barbarously ignorant; their
tory a perpetual variation; some-
nes attempting to borrow Euro-
n ideas, but without even know-
ge sufficient to understand or
opt them: indeed to establish any
ng lasting in these matters requires
the wisdom and stability of the
t government. But few or none
their customs can be of much
portance to us, where none have
endency or lead to virtue, which
leed would not only be useless
t obnoxious here, and for which
cannot find there is any term in
ir language.

"The respect they pay to the
mory of their saints might be
ll, were it for any thing but fol-
or rather an artful imbecility,
which those people enjoy a kind
liberty of doing what they please,
d seem to have great influence:
ir folly, which is generally I be-
ve affected, is considered as a kind
inspiration; it runs in families,
but you know the particulars.
ere I writing to one at a distance,
d less acquainted with this coun-
, I might be more circumstan-
tial, but you are neither distant nor ignorant enough to merit a particular account of any thing here.

"You see something like religion; and priests seem fortunately always to obtain some influence over men through all the stages of society, and more especially, in its earlier periods, for which indeed it seems more peculiarly adapted, as a necessary supplement to the defects of law and order; and it must continue to be always a good appendix to the code whenever it can be kept within bounds, or reformed and curtailed of superfluous power when necessary. As the code of laws and modes of education become more perfect the necessity for a superstitious and all governing religion probably diminishes; and the authority of its professors should be carefully regulated and restrained within bounds while it is practicable, and before they gain a head of power not afterwards to be controlled. You know some other nations have not been so fortunate as ours in this respect. Here their religion seems to have yet too much influence on their manners, opinions, and conduct; it makes them hate all the rest of mankind, and occupies too much of their time.

"Religious sanctuaries here sometimes stop the hand of bloody and rapacious tyranny, and tend to lessen the effects of private revenge, as it is usual for people to take refuge there against their enemies, who are generally obliged to respect them, and sometimes against the sovereign himself, though he does not always respect them. The effects of them might be of some benefit, if they could be made to protect the innocent and not the guilty, as is pretended; but we know cases to the contrary, and it is notorious that the guilty have been there protect-

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ed as in Spain, and that the innocent have been given up to the Superior power of the deſpot, whenever his intereſt or his paſſions required it.

"If one of theſe ſaints, by ſome fortunate chain of circumſtances, were to turn out to be a man of genius and information, he might do what he pleaſed with ſuch a people; he might improve, reform, and new model, the whole nation and its government. The improbability of ſuch a one ever being produced here baniſhes the idea of ſpeculating upon it. But as we become intereſted in our own ſpeculations, we cannot help looking forward with a degree of pleaſure, and hope to ſome future period of conqueſt or colonization of this country again from Europe; and yet upon reflection we may fear it is ſtill far diſtant. We have not yet, I fear, got near enough to the termination of the long period of ſuperſtition and fanaticiſm, and we muſt probably wait for that of reaſon before ſuch events can be produced. Though the Mahomedan conqueſts and eſtabliſhment are not perhaps ſo firm and intimate here as generally imagined, and might be rather eaſily overturned by certain operations from the north, aſſiſted by colonies from the ſouth; but mankind, during this yet fanatical age, are now here ſufficiently qualified and prepared to mix well and intermarry with the natives, nor the natives with them, not even in the countries where they emigrate moſt to each other, though ſuch mixture is perhaps the only way to ſecure any conqueſt or eſtabliſhment, and to improve the human race. The difficulties generally proceed from their differing in religious opinions. Were it not for the barbarous inveteracy of Mahomediſm, we might hope in time to ſee it wear down by the arts of peace, and give way to the weight of its own abſurdities. Its future hiſtory cannot yet well be foreſeen; it ſeems doubtful if it can ever again become ſufficiently rational and tolerant to admit of the neceſſary improvements in arts and government; or if it muſt go on in ignorance and barbarity, and at laſt decline by its own corruption and inconſiſtencies, till ſupplanted by ſome new ſyſtem of fanaticiſm. There is no giving Mahomedans any ideas of liberty or good government as yet, for they have no notion of ſovereignty without deſpotic power.

"To ſecure and to civilize this country, I believe it muſt be done by military colonies ſimilar to thoſe of the Romans: I wiſh you could ſearch and find out all the internal police, manners, and management, of thoſe. Let us ſuppoſe ſuch colonization to happen in our time, or that we are going to ſet about it: ſuch ſuppoſitions will quicken your diligence. The man who does not frequently build caſtles, plant colonies, and gain battles, in idea, will not probably ever do any thing of the kind in reality. If I were to have any hand in their formation, I ſhould probably inſiſt on ſome which may appear to you ſingularities—I ſhould imitate Penn, and have no ſtate religion, but ſecure a complete toleration, and protection to all ſects—I ſhould have more women, and give them more to ſay and to do in ſuch colonies than may correſpond with your ideas of military or even of civil life—I ſhould be for the ſexes living and acting almoſt perpetually together, both in public and private, as the firſt requiſite towards civilization, eſpecially in this country; they ſhould neither eat, drink, dreſs,

reſs, nor do almoſt any thing without the preſence and aſſiſtance of ach other. I think, even with us, ne ſexes retiring ſo much from ne another ſeldom proceeds from ny good motive, and has no good fects; here, their ſeparation is the reat impediment to all the adances of the ſpecies, and one of e many pernicious conſequences the ſubordination of one ſex to e other.

"The importance of this great ntinent or peninſula of Africa is vious, and its being as yet ſo little nown, or improved is equally ſurſing; however, many parts of it e known to be capable of every nd of produce, and may yet again pply Europe, &c. with many ings better than now by diſtant lonies.

"The native and natural race man throughout this great conent is probably the black, of two nds, the woolly-headed on one ſide the peninſula, and the long hair on the other, except thoſe of tlas and the northern coaſt, where ey were probably always white ſome degree; but theſe have been frequently mixed and colonized om Europe and Aſia, that it is now come impoſſible to diſtinguiſh the digenous and the different exotics; wever, in and about Atlas are the untries I ſhould like moſt to exore, if it were poſſible; and I ſpect it is not ſo impracticable, r the inhabitants ſo wild and barrous, as generally reported and agined. We might there diſver many objects of curioſity and utility—In thoſe of nature and antiquity—in Roman and Carginian remains - in the different nguages and races of people - perps the Punic language. When s country was better peopled and more productive, the communication between the northern and ſouthern coaſts, and with ſome of the internal parts, was probably much greater than we yet know or can trace. Carthage poſſibly drew much of her wealth and greatneſs from that ſource. In Tunis, and the country around it, they ſay a ſpirit of commerce and induſtry is ſtill perceptible.

"We do not here perceive any reality in the ſuppoſed inferiority of the black race to the white, but often the contrary; ſome of the beſt officers, farmers, workmen, of this empire, and I believe of ſeveral others, have been of that race. All the different colours ſeem to be nearly of the ſame African character, comprehending a variety of tempers and turns of mind as among ourſelves; there may be ſome ſhades of difference, phyſical, and hence moral, ſometimes perceptible in the humour and temper of mind between the blacks and whites; the black may have rather more of that kind of volatile ſenſibility, or irritability, which ſeems to attend the human character as it approaches the ſun—warmer, yet weaker: their ſentiments, though more ardent, ſeem to be more tranſient than ours; and their faculties, as well as formation, may be ſomewhat different, but not, I think, beyond the power of habit and education to model and aſſimilate. They may have the advantage in ſome faculties, and the whites in others, and I doubt not but great characters and a great nation might be formed of theſe, as well as of other human beings; but the world wants yet more knowledge and experience on this ſubject, and we ſhould require much more reſidence and more attention to determine any thing in it: this is certainly one

of the beſt countries for that purpoſe; here all the various races and colours of men are nearly on the ſame footing of eſtimation, unleſs they happen to be Jews or Chriſtians, and they may be conſidered and compared in all the different ſtations that this ſtate of ſociety affords, from the baſhaw or general down to the menial ſlave: in our iſlands and colonies we ſee the blacks only in the ſtate of ſlavery, which produces always a diſtinct and ſimilar character.

"The ſea-ports are the moſt eſſential parts of a country: they might have three or four tolerably good here, by a little aſſiſtance given to nature, at Santa Cruz, Mogodore, Woladia; and perhaps Tangier might ſtill be made a pretty good one, by clearing it, and rebuilding the mole, which might be carried much farther out. If the Chriſtian powers had continued to increaſe and improve their garriſons and ports on this coaſt; they might by this time have ſerved as places of trade and friendly intercourſe in times of peace, or of aſylum, or as military ſchools, in caſe of war: the people around would have liked them for the ſame reaſons that the people of all the ſouthern coaſts of Spain and Portugal like to have the Engliſh at Gibraltar.

"But this government can never probably be ſufficiently ſettled to undertake or finiſh any public works that require much time; hardly any of theſe emperors have of late been able to finiſh even a houſe to live in. This one mounted the throne with the rare advantage of having no competitor, being an only ſon; an advantage which his ſucceſſor, whoever he may be, will not likely enjoy: his more ſavage ſons may probably vie with each other for the ſucceſſion, as uſual, and again drench the country in blood, and in all the horrors of a civil war."

State of GOVERNMENT, SOCIETY, and MANNERS in JERSEY.

[From the Second Volume of the ſame Work.]

"THE numerous beauties of this little iſland I ſhall not attempt to deſcribe. The rocky promontories, and extenſive amphitheatrical ſandy bays of its coaſt, the internal little ſhady vales and ſtreams, are all remarkably beautiful. The whole is perhaps too much covered with wood; the diviſions of the land too ſmall: the numerous fences planted with trees, together with the roads, occupy probably one-fourth of the iſland. The ſea ſeems gaining on the weſt end, near St. Owen's Bay. The natural hiſtory and produce would require more attention than we can ſpare, and probably deſerv it. Theſe iſlands are obviouſly th tops of marine mountains, and ſ milar to thoſe of the Pyrenees, & conſiſting of a few different kin of perhaps primitive rock, throw up in confuſed heaps, or ſhatter maſſes. Where any ſtrata are pe ceptible, they are nearly perpend cular to the horizon.

"Of the ſtate of ſociety and g vernment, I ſhall only give you few of my uſual looſe remark Theſe iſlands have been held as remnant of Normandy, by what cidental care and good fortune it needl

dleſs here to trace. Their form government is an old feudal ariſtacy, eſtabliſhed by king John, h the legiſlative, the judicial, and a time, the executive powers, in ſame body of people, as was mode in thoſe times of war and orance. They have been conſi-ed as belonging not to our legiſ-re, but to the crown, and have erally been under the adminiſ-ion or ſuperintendence of the y council, which is not I believe wed to be very well conſtituted n for a court of law; how well ulated to be a legiſlative body I not pretend to determine. e moſt democratic government ſt perhaps become ariſtocratic in e degree; the degree and form which is of great importance. en it can be properly divided in-an upper and lower part, ſe-ate, independent, and nearly anced, and under the control perly limited of one head, the em may become nearly com-te: but here, the two latter are ective. The upper and lower ts, the Peers and Commons, ſit ether, and the ariſtocratic part mmonly governs, as uſual in this m: the yet ill-defined power of head is divided between a go-nor and a baily, who generally by deputies. This ſimulacre of onſtitution deceives at firſt view h ſome appearance of control l balance, of forms, elections, ges; but theſe are chiefly falla-, and the whole has been too en found to be little better than a annical ariſtocracy. The ſtates legiſlature conſiſts of twelve ju-s, elected by the whole iſland for ,—of twelve clergy, and of twelve mbers called conſtables, one elect-by each pariſh for three years, h the lieutenant-baily, who holds ſtates. The clergy are proba-the beſt informed part of this legiſlature, and can have but few intereſted views. Where there are no places or preferment for them, and their livings being very ſmall, it ſeems their intereſt to be popular among their pariſhioners; they are generally now on the ſide of the people, and ſeem to be proportionally diſliked by the ſeigneurs. Their biſhop, viz. of Wincheſter, ſurely ought to viſit them ſometimes, and they ſhould have more ſtudents at our univerſities, where there is only a ſcanty proviſion of three fellowſhips, and twelve poor ſcholarſhips, for the two iſlands. The judicial power, or royal court, is only a certain number of the jurats, who, in this capacity, cannot be expected always to forget their political or party ſpirit; and accordingly they have often uſed their judicial power to promote their political views and influence, and cauſes are frequently decided in favour of their own party. As legiſlators, or as judges, they are placed in a cruel and difficult ſituation, and if they have been ſometimes tyrannical and unjuſt, their political conſtitution is perhaps more in fault than they.

"In order to procure juſtice and freedom, the efficient government, of whatever form, ſhould be under ſome control, or it will degenerate into tyranny:—ſuch is man. This ariſtocracy has been formerly long in the habits of governing without any ſufficient reſtraint; and though a ſpirit of liberty and oppoſition has at length found its way hither, and the jurats have loſt their great influence in the ſtates, yet they may again recover it, and reſume their wonted deſpotic ſway, if the privy council ſhould be too partial to the ariſtocratic part. Their preſent ſituation, full of perpetual ſtruggles between the governing and popular parties, creates violent heats and

animoſities, and threatens dangerous confuſion, as uſual in ſmall places, eſpecially if no umpire of ſufficient authority and influence is preſent to decide the conteſt, and with wiſdom enough to preſerve the balance. The reſtoring and ſupporting their ancient tyranny can hardly now be intended, as ſome of them ſuſpect, being a meaſure ſo highly unworthy an Engliſh government, and could only be effected by ſuch violent means as would in theſe days diſgrace any nation. The only remedy is to mend their conſtitution, and give them ſome Engliſh laws, which is now much deſired by many. Juries, in the way which they themſelves propoſe, and which were anciently in uſe here as in Normandy, would probably anſwer well enough for them, viz. in caſes where deſired by the parties. It may be alledged, that in ſuch ſmall places their deciſions would ſtill be only the voice of party; but theſe, by being generally the opinion of a majority, would probably be nearly and often right, and would be leſs partial than the judgment of arbitrary and intereſted magiſtrates.

"Such a baſeleſs fabric as this old French ariſtocracy is not now long to be ſupported, and was only practicable in the hands of wiſdom or artifice and experience; but muſt crumble to pieces if it ſhould repeatedly fall under the guidance of folly, vanity, paſſion, or inexperience, and ſtill more if under all theſe together.

"It might be owing to the tyranny, inſufficiency, or non-reſidence of former governors, that their power has been divided: the civil part has been given to a baily who holds the ſtates, &c. by deputy; and little elſe beſides the military part, remains to the governor. Unleſs theſe two chance to be very wiſe and temperate men, they muſt be at perpetual war. In the body politic, there is no ſupplying the want or deficiency of a head: every ſubſtitute or contrivance for that purpoſe can form only a monſter which cannot live long. It is better there be always a neceſſity for a good head, to oblige ſovereigns to look out for proper governors, and not indulge them in thinking their tools or favourites ſufficient. Beſides, we ſhould attend to the change of times and manners for many obvious reaſons. Even proper military lieutenant-governors may now perhaps be more eaſily found than lieutenant-bailies above mediocrity, or ſufficiently qualified for the head of ſuch a ſtate. The army may now produce as many men of ſufficient probity, honour, and general knowledge, as any other line of life. It is not to be eaſily underſtood why we have been ſo backward in giving theſe people the ſame kind of government with our other iſlands by a governor, ſenate, and aſſembly.

"In every country and form of rule, there ought perhaps to be complaints and abuſes enough to feed and maintain an oppoſition as a watch and control upon power; and when oppoſition is increaſed to a majority by the increaſe of abuſes they are thus often redreſſed. The oppoſition having of late grown up to a majority, under every diſadvantage, marks that it is high time to change and improve their conſtitution. Though theſe poor people may not have ſo much to complain of as they imagine, or as might be expected under ſo imperfect a government; though they may naturally magnify their own evils and ſufferances; yet they ought ſurely to have at leaſt ſome of them redreſſed

. They might ſucceed better, rhaps in every ſenſe, with more tience and moderation; but theſe alities may be more difficult to quire in proportion to the ſmall- ſs of the ſociety, and defective m of its conſtitution. This is t a government of laws, but of rſons, which uſually degenerates o tyranny. They can hardly in- ed be ſaid to have any laws, ex- ot a few orders of council, and ne vague and uncertain old cuſ- ns, which are naturally neglect- and forgotten by an arbitrary vernment. But ſince colonel mpbell, their lieutenant-gover- r, in 1761, firſt encouraged an poſition to the reigning magiſ- tes, their minds and views have en gradually opening, and they ve caught a little of that ſpirit freedom and diſcuſſion which ſur- unds them in Europe; and it ms rather ſurpriſing, that our go- rnment has not yet encouraged ir efforts, nor ſeconded that gen- man's benevolent endeavours, d has been ſo remiſs in granting em more of our laws and conſti- ion. However, their legiſlative as ſeem to be advancing by their ntentions, more than for centu- s before. The principles and provements of the age muſt pro- bly, in time, reach theſe iſlands. "Though they may yet be conſi- ed as children in politics, and fit to govern themſelves; though y may not all ſufficiently conſi- the long gradation, neceſſary to fection in domeſtic policy, nor difficulties, or rather impoſſibi- of adopting, at once, all the ws and conſtitution of England, ich have required the progreſſion ages to attain the preſent degree excellence, and which their ſtate not yet ripe for; this perhaps ght to coſt them much time and pains, and muſt prove the reſult of gradual experience. However, ſome of them are ſenſible of this, and wiſh it to be gradual. You might begin either by granting them the juries they deſire, or by improving their conſtitution only by a ſmall alteration in its form; by ſeparating the ſtates into two houſes, with a governor only; and the other neceſſary changes would gradually follow of courſe. To do this in the wiſeſt and moſt temperate manner, ſend them proper commiſſioners firſt to examine and report.

"Many think the form of government immaterial, if the people are contented. You know I do not think ſo; but even that excuſe for ſtanding ſtill, or for checking the natural human progreſs, will probably ſoon be removed; for much of the world ſeem now to be changing their ideas very faſt on theſe ſubjects. In this progreſs, the wiſeſt rulers will give way to ſome of the inevitable innovations, and will attempt only to limit the degree, and reſtrain the impetuoſity, but not forcibly oppoſe the carrying of ſome ſpeculations into practice. If any of them are really great, theſe will ſtep forward and become the leaders of temperate reformation; they will eſtabliſh and repair, but not deſtroy ſyſtems, and will become great legiſlators, and the refounders of laſting nations. The gradual improvement of man, of the ſociety or the ſpecies, is an intereſting progreſs, in which the knowledge of his own errors is the firſt ſtep; and to which the theories, and even hints of ſpeculation, and the facts of experience, are equally neceſſary and conducive. In this progreſs, political and legiſlative knowledge ſeems to be the moſt neceſſary, and hi erto the moſt deficient. But all

the assistance of such knowledge cannot perhaps be expected till education is better understood, nor till theory is more generally joined with practice, study with experience and travel. I could sometimes wish no man to be admitted as a magistrate, more than a pastor, who had not passed some certain degree or examination at an university, if we did not see that numbers may take that road and bring away very little useful science: and yet some of these may become even ministers of state long before they know on what the prosperity of a nation depends. Such knowledge is not to be found ready for use in books and college lectures, nor in the huge volumes of the law, however necessary these may be, as a foundation for experience to build upon. Hence our political and commercial principles have been so often deficient. It may require yet much more time, and a more general information, to banish all the remains of our monopolizing corporation ideas of commerce and balance of trade, founded on opinions and sentiments unworthy a Jew pedlar, viz. on a mean jealousy of all the world, and wishing no nation to have a profit or favourable balance but ourselves; and it was shameful to see ministers, not very long ago reasoning from the ideas of the meanest monopolist, desirous that other nations should take our manufactures, and make nothing for themselves that should enable them to pay us: whereas it might easily be shewn that the highest cultivation and industry of the world would proportionally increase the commerce of all nations. From the same kind of narrow principles have proceeded much of our politics of late, endeavouring to engross the trade and dependence of colonies and distant countries, to our mutual disadvantage. It is to be feared there are still some who think we were wrong in permitting to our colonies such good forms of government by which they prospered so fast, and became more independent on our caprices; but chiefly by our own folly and tyranny they were separated from us before their time. Those people would have had us imitate Spain and secure the dependence of our colonies by their poverty and depopulation. Will it be believed by posterity, that such sentiments prevailed in the first nation of the world during the eighteenth century? Such maxims and events are certainly of historical importance and should be held up to posterity in their proper colours. But let us hope our public councils will now improve, as general knowledge and more liberal legislative principles gradually prevail in the world, and that the times are nearly past which produced stamp acts, Quebec bill and such proceedings as lost us an empire. Let us give way, or rather take the lead in the improvements of the age. Mystery and oppression cannot long subsist, nor succeed as hitherto, in these investigating and enlightened times, and must probably be gradually relinquished and banished from the art of governing mankind. How much better to lead than be driven, and to bestow in time with a good grace what must at length be, as it were extorted by the general voice. Even when a Conway shall be no more, though virtue and science shall then drop a tear, other friends to liberty and justice will arise, to support and extend their revivified principles, and who will lead your long-neglected islanders into the general legislature, or to all the benefits of the British laws, and go-

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ernment. There is a kind of li-erallity, which is the higheſt wiſ-om, in politics, and though not et much known, may in time pre-ail. Let us be timely wiſe, and rant proſperity to the remoteſt arts of the empire, at preſent diſ-nterеſtedly, for their benefit, but hich will in time reſult to the good f the whole. The political heart, hat ſhall freely circulate blood and fe to the extremities, will have it eturned with double vigour and dvantage. Grant them, by de-rees, all the freedom, immunities, nd good government they deſire; ou will reap the profit in the courſe f time, and of their natural pro-reſs, without any of the mercan-ile inſidious arts or monopolizing tipulations.

"I think I find here moſt of my ld political principles confirmed y experience, and on a ſcale nei-her too ſmall for fair experiment, or too large for the eye to take in by omparative views, nor too full of ncertainty from the complication f different cauſes. In moſt old ſtabliſhments, in all unfair modes f government, but eſpecially in riſtocracies, there is a natural ten-lency to keep things as they are, nd hence to exclude almoſt all im-provements by which the rulers ear they may chance to loſe ſome ower or influence. They are na-urally jealous of the merchant, the manufacturer, the rich bourgeois r parvenus, and of every innova-or or improver. Here, they are ccordingly jealous even of the com-nerce that would finally enrich hemſelves, and of the very learn-ng and the ſchools that would en-ighten and improve all. This is he ſmall working model of a great nation. We ſee human nature at work as we do bees through the glaſs hive. There doubtleſs muſt always be a difference of rank among men in ſociety; but on the proper regu-lation and limitation of that diffe-rence will depend much of their progreſs and political happineſs. Whether the people are moſt happy in ſlavery or in freedom, was once diſputed in the countries that are now the freeſt and moſt civilized, and is diſputed ſtill in Ruſſia, Po-land, the Weſt Indies, &c. That they are more active and induſ-trious with liberty and ſecurity, can now hardly be doubted. In every ſociety there is a natural tendency and progreſſion towards an inju-rious difference, an increaſing in-equality in rank and riches. The beſt governments will be known by their contriving juſt and gentle li-mits and obſtructions to this evil, and that ſhall raiſe and ſupport the poor and helpleſs againſt the rich and powerful, between whom there is always a ſecret, but very unequal war and enmity. We may doubt if there be any government yet eſtabliſhed, that is completely ad-equate to this taſk, but we may pre-ſume that our own comes the near-eſt to it, and may hope it will come nearer ſtill. But I am perhaps too eaſily led into general reflections, in ſearch of practical truths, and prin-ciples of importance. You know I conſider the art or ſcience of legiſ-lation as yet in its infancy.

"The things that are wanting to make theſe poor iſlanders as happy as nature allows, may be few though eſſential. A mediocrity, rather bor-dering on poverty, with a purity and ſimplicity of manners, ſeem to prevail here. A diviſion of pro-perty, uncommonly minute, pro-vides a ſort of independent ſubſiſ-tence for a greater number than is almoſt anywhere to be found on an equal ſpace of territory. The ancient ſlaviſh conditions of ſome

of their tenures ſhould be aboliſhed, as the labour due to the *ſeigneur*, and the corn rents, &c. Theſe few ſmall alterations, with the trials by jury, ſome Engliſh laws, and perhaps members of parliament, may form nearly the ſum of what they want at preſent; as theſe would gradually bring the other requiſites towards making them more induſtrious, populous, and more important iſlands to England. Their poor and parſimonious appearance, and modes of living, of dreſs, of farming, their utenſils, manners, &c. ſeem all as yet a little too much in the French ſtyle. They ought ſurely, by this time, to have been more like Engliſh people. Our government has certainly been the moſt to blame in this. I doubt we are conſtitutionally inadequate or unfit for the management of foreign poſſeſſions, till they are incorporated in our legiſlature, and thence all become gradually ſubject to the ſame laws. A large proportion of the men here go to ſea, while their ſmall poſſeſſions are but indifferently cultivated. Under better government, laws, and tenures, this uncommon junction of the trades of ſailor and farmer might be ſeperated, and both ſucceed better; with many other beneficial effects, as more activity, education, &c.

"This iſland may be conſidered as a model in ſome eſſentials, and worthy the imitation of greater ſtates; as in the military arrangements, and ſyſtem of defence, which have been ſo highly improved, and almoſt formed *de novo*, by the preſent governor, general Conway, whom theſe people ſtyle their father and defender. The whole of the inhabitants, of all ranks, have been formed into an excellent militia, in which there are many points that ſhew the very rare degree of military ſcience of the inſtitutor, as well as his towers, and the whole ſyſtematic defence of the coaſt. I think the uniform he has given them here, the jacket and long trowſers, is the beſt military dreſs I have yet ſeen, and anſwers all the purpoſes we want. Theſe, with the artillery part of each corps, and ſeveral other regulations, are highly worthy of imitation. To complete the ſyſtem, a place of ſtrength is wanting; one that ſhould ſtand a ſiege of a certain time, and that could be readily ſupplied and relieved by ſea, which is a chief object in every fortification for us, and indeed the only circumſtance that can now render a place impregnable, ſuch as Tyre, Bergenopzoom, Gibraltar, might be made. A harbour, protected by the fort, might likewiſe be formed, for frigates at leaſt, as theſe might be of ſignal ſervice ſo ſtationed, particularly at the beginning of a war. The importance of theſe iſlands to England, as advanced poſts, &c. need not, I hope, be here demonſtrated to you. In the civil wars, you know they remained firmly loyal, and by their annoyance of the parliament's forces by ſea, ſhewed what miſchief they might do us in the hands of an enemy. Charles II. knew their importance, and always obſtinately refuſed, when in the greateſt want of aſſiſtance, to ſell them to France for that purpoſe.

"It appears that the Druids reſorted much to theſe iſlands, as well as to Angleſea. The ruins of above fifty of their monuments or temples have been diſcovered here; one lately, very complete, which is going to be ſent to their Governor's at Park Place. The Druids were right. Theſe ſecluded iſles were then well ſuited for ſtudy and meditation, and probably for their myſterious

ysterious worſhip, and for ſafety. his beautiful iſland, I think, even ow well adapted for ſtudy, and for lucation, and poſſeſſes many adntages for a good ſchool, being e only place we know where rench and Engliſh are ſpoken ually well by all ranks above the mmon and country people. The urts of juſtice, and law pleadings French; the preaching in both languages, alternately; a pleaſant retired and healthy country; innocency and ſimplicity of manners; great œconomy, with a mediocrity of wealth and condition, the inhabitants all proteſtants; little œconomical tours to France with the ſcholars might be eaſily made. I know of no place abroad poſſeſſing ſo many advantages for an early education."

CCOUNT of the DUMPLERS, a religious Sect in PENNSYLVANIA.

From the TRAVELS through the Interior Parts of AMERICA, in a ſeries of Letters, by an Officer.

IN travelling through Pennſylvania you meet with people of lmoſt every different perſuaſion of eligion that exiſts; in ſhort, the iverſity of religions, nations, and nguages here is aſtoniſhing; at ne ſame time the harmony they ve in no leſs edifying; notwithranding every one, who wiſhes well religion, is hurt to ſee the diverty that prevails, and would by the oſt ſoothing means, endeavour to revent it; yet, when the misforune once takes place, and there is o longer an union of ſentiments, it s nevertheleſs glorious to preſerve n union of affections; and certainy it muſt be highly pleaſing to ſee nen live though of ſo many differ-ent perſuaſions, yet to the ſame Chriſtian principles, and though not f the ſame religion ſtill to the great nd of all, the proſperity and welare of mankind. Among the numerous ſects of religion with which his province abounds, for there are Churchmen, Quakers, Calviniſts, Lutherans, Catholics, Methodiſts, Meniſts, Moravians, Independents, Anabaptiſts, there is a ſect which perhaps you never heard of, called the Dumplers. This ſect took its origin from a German, who, weary of the world retired to a very ſolitary place, about fifty miles from Philadelphia, in order to give up his whole time to contemplation; ſeveral of his countrymen came to viſit him in his retreat, and by his pious, ſimple, and peaceable manners, many were induced to ſettle near him, and in a ſhort time adopting his modes, they formed a little colony, which they named Euphrates, in alluſion to that river upon whoſe borders the Hebrews were accuſtomed to ſing pſalms.

"Their little city is built in the form of a triangle, and bordered with mulberry and apple trees, very regularly planted. In the centre of the town is a large orchard, and between the orchard and the ranges of trees that are planted round the borders, are their houſes, which are built of wood, and three ſtories high: in theſe every Dumpler is left to enjoy his meditations with-

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out diſturbance. Theſe contemplative men, in the whole do not amount to more than five hundred; their territory is nearly three hundred acres in extent; on one ſide is a river, on another a piece of ſtagnated water, and on the other two are mountains covered with trees.

"They have women of their community, who live ſeparate from the men: they ſeldom ſee each other but at places of worſhip, and never have meetings of any kind but for public buſineſs; their whole life is ſpent in labour, prayer, and ſleep; twice every day and night they are ſummoned from their cells to attend divine ſervice. As to their religion, in ſome meaſure, it reſembles the quakers; for every individual, if he thinks himſelf inſpired has a right to preach. The ſubjects they chiefly diſcourſe upon are humility, temperance, charity, and other Chriſtian virtues; never violating that day held ſacred amongſt all perſuaſions; they admit of a hell and a paradiſe, but deny the eternity of future puniſhment. As to the doctrine of original ſin, they hold it as impious blaſphemy, together with every tenet that is ſevere to man, deeming it injurious to divinity. As they allow no merit to any but voluntary works, baptiſm is only adminiſtered to the adult; nevertheleſs, they think it ſo eſſentially neceſſary to ſalvation, as to imagine the ſouls of Chriſtians are employed in the other world in the converſion of thoſe who have not died under the light of the goſpel.

"Religion, among the Dumplers, has the ſame effect philoſophy had upon the Stoics, rendering them inſenſible to every kind of inſult; they are more paſſive and diſintereſted than the Quakers, for they will ſuffer themſelves to be cheated, robbed, and abuſed, without the leaſt idea of retaliation, or even a complaint.

"Their dreſs is very ſimple and plain, conſiſting of a long white gown, from whence hangs a hood to ſerve the purpoſes of a hat, a coarſe ſhirt, thick ſhoes, and very wide breeches, ſomething reſembling thoſe the Turks wear. The men wear their beards to a great length; ſome I ſaw were down to the waiſt; at the firſt ſight of them I could not help comparing them to our old ancient bards the Druids, from their reverential appearance. The women are dreſſed ſimilar to the men, excepting the breeches.

'Their life is very abſtemious, and eating no meats; not that they deem it unlawful, but more conformable to the ſpirit of Chriſtianity, which they argue has an averſion to blood; and upon thoſe grounds they ſubſiſt only on vegetables, and the produce of the earth.

'They follow with great chearfulneſs their various branches of buſineſs, in ſome one of which every individual partakes, and the produce of their labour is depoſited in one common ſtock, to ſupply the neceſſities of every individual; and, by this union of induſtry, they have not only eſtabliſhed agriculture and manufactures ſufficient to ſupport this little ſociety, but ſuperfluities for the purpoſes of exchange for European commodities.

"Though the two ſexes live ſeparate, they do not renounce matrimony; but thoſe who are diſpoſed to it leave the city and ſettle in the country, on a tract of land which the Dumplers have purchaſed

l for that purpoſe. The couple re ſupported at the public expences hich they repay by the produce f their labour; and their children re ſent to Germany for education. Vithout this wiſe policy, the Dumlers would be little better than ionks, and in proceſs of time anihilated.

" Although there are ſo many ects, and ſuch a difference of relious opinions in this province, it s ſurprizing the harmony which ubſiſts among them; they conſider themſelves as children of the ſame father, and live like brethren, becauſe they have the liberty of thinking like men. To this pleaſing harmony, in a great meaſure, is to be attributed the rapid and flouriſhing ſtate of Pennſylvania above all the other provinces. Would to heaven that harmony was equally as prevalent all over the globe! if it was, I think you will acquieſce with me in opinion that it would be for the general welfare of mankind."

CLASSI-

CLASSICAL AND POLITE CRITICISM.

The PRESENT STATE of LITERATURE in TURKEY.

[From M. D'OHSSON's General HISTORY of the OTHOMAN EMPIRE.]

"FROM the first origin of Muſſulmaniſm the founders of moſques have ever thought it a duty to erect colleges near their temples, whoſe ſole deſtination was the ſtudy of law and theology. Theſe edifices received therefore only thoſe intended to be Oulémas, who, divided into two claſſes, formed, as they do at preſent, the magiſtracy and the ſacerdotal order.

"The progreſs of the Arabs in letters and the fine arts followed that of their arms over the three parts of the ancient continent, and colleges were ſoon erected for the cultivation of thoſe ſciences which contributed ſo much to the glory of the Greeks and Romans. They taught geography, hiſtory, medicine, natural hiſtory, metaphyſics, aſtronomy, mathematics, &c. In the Oriental annals are enumerated the magnificent Médreſſés which the Khaliphs, the Anti-Khaliphs, and the other Mahometan potentates erected at Mecca, Medina, Kiuffé, Baghdad, Damas, in Perſia, Africa, Spain, &c. The fall of the Khaliphal monarchy, and that of the dynaſties which aroſe on its ruins, and were ſucceſſively annihilated, influenced the fate of learning. It exhibited a general languor, and the Médreſſés were again limited to the ſtudy of law and theology, the objects of their primitive inſtitution.

"Such was the ſtate of all the Mahometan colleges in Aſia and Africa near the concluſion of the thirteenth century, when Oſman I. laid at Seugutdjik the foundation of a new empire. More attentive to the ſucceſs of his arms than to the progreſs of ſcience in his riſing monarchy, he was content with maintaining without improvement the plan of the ancient Médreſſés. His ſon and ſucceſſor, Orkhan I. having built at Nice an imperial moſque 731 (1330), erected alſo a Médreſſé, which during more than a century was conſidered as the firſt of the Mahometan colleges: it was called after his name, Médreſſé-y-Orkhaniyé, and the direction of it was intruſted to the Scheykh-Davoud-Caïſſary, under the title of Muderriſs; but this college, as well as thoſe which were afterwards founded by the princes of his family, and the nobles of the empire, have had no other object than the knowledge requiſite for the miniſters of religion and law.

"It is true that Mourad I. Mourad II. Mohammed II. Selim I. and Suleyman I. all zealous protectors of the ſciences, endeavoured to revive the propitious æra of Arabian literature. They wiſhed to impart a ſimilar luſtre to the principal Médreſſés, particularly to thoſe of their own foundation; but their intentions were feebly ſeconded by their ſucceſſors, eſpecially ſince the fatal

tal epoch of the impriſonment of ne princes of the blood: thus at reſent theſe colleges are confined o law and theology.

" Theſe ſtudies are, however, onducted with much order and me-hod: they are divided into ten laſſes, under the common denomi-ation of Ilm, which means ſcience; amely, 1. grammar, Ilm-Sarf; 2. yntax, Ilm-Nahhw; 3. logic, Ilm-Manntik; 4. morality, Ilm-Adab; . the ſcience of allegories, Ilm-Meâny, which ſupplies the place of hetoric; 6. theology, Ilm-Kelam, r Ilm-Illahhy; 7. philoſophy, lm-Hikmeth; 8. juriſprudence, lm-Fikihh: the Cour'ann and its ommentaries, Ilm-Tefsir; and, 10. he oral laws of the prophet, Ilm-Hadiſs.

" Theſe are the principal ſci-nces taught in the Médreſſés, which re the only colleges in the empire. Their number is however conſider-ble, ſince in all the great cities the hief moſques having each their Médreſſé; many have two, three, nd even four, particularly the im-perial moſques; that of Sultan-Su-eyman has five, of which one is particularly conſecrated to the ſtudy of medicine. The moſque Sultan-Mohammed is the only one which has eight of them: they are built of ſtone, and each contains from twelve to thirty chambers or cells, called Heudjreth, which are occupied by one or more ſcholars, according to the number in each college.

" Theſe pupils are called Softa, corrupt from Soukhté, which ſig-nifies any thing burnt, and in a figurative ſenſe an object who ſuf-fers. They are called alſo Muid, or Murid, that is, diſciples: and Daniſchmend, whoſe only meaning is that of a ſtudent; the maſters, by the title of Khodjea, ſupply the place of profeſſors, Muderriſs, who, derogating from the primitive laws of their inſtitution, neglect this duty, and are ſatisfied with attending once or twice a month. Formerly, the Mouphtys came occaſionally to the Médreſſés of Sultan-Bayezid, and gave themſelves public leſſons to the more advanced Softas, conſidering it a duty, ſays Ahmed Efendy, to diffuſe through the colleges the light of ſcience and religion.

" Thoſe ſtudies which relate to the canonical law are directed by the works of the Imams-Hanéfys, except at Mecca, Medina, Cairo, Aleppo, Damas, and Jeruſalem. Since in theſe countries the number of the partizans of the three other rites, reputed equally orthodox, has always been conſiderable, the an-cient Khaliphs permitted the ſtudy of the private opinions of their foun-ders. They eſtabliſhed in ſome of the Médreſſés of theſe great cities profeſſors, Muderriſs, of theſe four different ſects, who at Mecca and Cairo had each a private college. The Othoman ſovereigns reſpected theſe ancient eſtabliſhments. Suleyman I. erected at Mecca four new Médreſ-ſés, each ſeparately deſtined to the followers of theſe four rites. It has been already obſerved, that the li-berty of the following any of theſe rites is confined ſolely to private worſhip, that is, to thoſe religious practices which are impoſed indivi-dually upon every Muſſulman; but that reſpecting all thoſe points which relate to public worſhip and juriſprudence, they adhere, through-out the whole empire, to the opi-nions and laws of the Imams Ha-néfys.

" In ſome of theſe colleges the Softas ſtudy together; in others they read in their ſeparate apart-ments. The vaſt extent of the Ara-bian language, the complicated na-ture of ſome of its principles, and

the

the multiplicity of its classic authors, render these studies tedious and irksome.

"The Turkish, the Persian, and the Arabic, are the only languages with which the Othomans are acquainted. The primitive Turkish, a barren and inharmonious idiom, is that used by the people. The Persian, which is extremely soft, is cultivated only by the poets. The Arabic is unrivalled for richness and majesty, notwithstanding the harsh sounds produced by the guttural letters âin, ghaïn, ha, khy, &c. which are disagreeable when pronounced by the Arabs, but not so when uttered by the Othomans. This language, to gain an intimate knowledge of it, requires an unremitted application of many years. The study of it is indispensable, because the Cour'ann, and all the ancient works in theology, philosophy, and law, are written in Arabic, in the Coureysch idiom, which hath little resemblance to that multiplicity of dialects used in different cantons of Arabia, Egypt, Syria, and Africa. Thus it constitutes a particular study, especially at Constantinople, and in the neighbouring provinces, where the Arabic may be considered as a dead language, since the Turkish is there the only vehicle of conversation.

"This latter tongue, which was very much cultivated under the first Othoman Sultans, but especially under Suleyman I. borrowed richness from the Persian and the Arabic; so that this new idiom, which must be distinguished from the ancient Turkish, the speech of the vulgar, may be said to constitute a fourth language, used by the court and by persons of education: in this idiom, equally noble and harmonious, are written all the works of history and science, the edicts of sovereigns, the orders of ministers, the decrees of bauntrils, in fine, whatever issues from the imperial chancery, and from the various offices or departments of public affairs.

"These different languages have the same characters, the same alphabet; and though in this alphabet there are properly only three vowels, an application of four months is sufficient to learn to read and write it, the orthography being infinitely more simple, and suited to pronunciation, than the French, English, &c. The different characters presented by the Arabian alphabet, which is common to the Turkish and the Persian, differ only from each other in the termination of the letters, in their connexion and punctuation, which do not much increase the difficulty either to a native or a stranger.

"These characters are diversified in ten different ways: each has its denomination and particular use. The most simple, and consequently the most common, is the Neskh, or Neskhy: it is used exclusively for books, whether manuscript or printed. The Diwany is employed for missive letters, more particularly for the decrees, Fermanns, and for whatever is issued from the public offices. The Siyacath is confined to the finances. The Rik'â is for requests, memoirs, petitions, &c. The Talik and the Diwany-Neskhissy are particularly consecrated to poems, chronograms, fugitive pieces, &c. The Sulus-Sulus-djerissy, and Neskh-djerissy are only for mottos, inscriptions, legends; and the Djery, for warrants, diplomas, as also for the inscriptions on mosques, mausoleums, or other public edifices. The Kiufy is also sometimes used for the inscriptions of temples. The Neskhy, and the Diwany, are characters the most used by all classes of the people. The clerks, Keatibs,

are

the only perſons who apply their
ntion to the other characters:
y in general write ſo well, that
letters might be ſuppoſed to be
raved.

"The pupils in the Medreſſés
om attend to this diverſity in the
abian letters; but to their other
dies, the Cour'an and its com-
ntaries, they add the pronuncia-
n conſecrated for that reputed
eſtial volume. The accents, in-
ions, and pauſes in ſimple read-
, and in the pſalmody of public
yer, require their peculiar at-
tion.

"Many alſo ſtudy the Perſian
etry, of which the moſt eſteemed
rks are the Pend-Atter, the
luſtan, Boſtann, Schewketh,
fiz, Saïb-œurfy, &c. Theſe are
ſſic volumes, which contain only
xims of philoſophy and morality.
the three languages are found
o epic poems, amorous verſes,
rious other works of poetry, and
nſiderable collections of proverbs,
ages, and judicious apothegms.
ney who have a taſte for the ſci-
ces apply themſelves alſo to me-
cine, natural philoſophy, aſtrono-
y, and mathematics; but as theſe
ndies are merely acceſſory, ſince
ey contribute only to the private
tisfaction of thoſe who cultivate
em, and ſince their great object is
become either magiſtrates or mi-
ſters of religion, it may eaſily be
nceived that their progreſs in theſe
ſtract and remote ſciences cannot
very complete and ſucceſsful.

"Such is the preſent ſtate of the
Medreſſés, which may be conſidered
ſeminaries that produce the
cheykhs, Imams, and Muezzinns
all the Mahometan temples, and
e Muderriſs, the Cadys, the
Naïbs, &c. who fill the lower ranks
the judicature: they ſeldom ob-
in the firſt offices; during many
centuries theſe have been reſerved
for the moſt diſtinguiſhed families
among the Oulémas, whoſe chil-
dren, like thoſe of the other citi-
zens, are inſtructed in their own
houſes.

"Theſe private ſtudies are regu-
lated on the ſame plan as is obſerved
in the Médreſſés. The education
of the young nobility, and of thoſe
who apply to politics, is leſs exten-
ſive: oriental hiſtory and philoſo-
phy are the objects which moſt oc-
cupy their attention. There are
few who ſtudy metaphyſics, geo-
graphy, mathematics, and the prin-
ciples of government: theſe ſciences
are neglected, becauſe government
pays no ſerious attention to them;
and they are beheld by the people
with a careleſs indifference.

"Learning was formerly more
cultivated by the Othomans, be-
cauſe the Sultans were well inform-
ed themſelves, and encouraged an
acquaintance with the ſciences, both
by their own example, and the
wiſdom of their laws. If all the
monarchs from Oſman I. to Ahmed
I. though bred in arms, and in-
ſtructed in the art of government,
were not equally diſtinguiſhed on
the throne by their virtues and
warlike talents, almoſt all of them
were eminent for their erudition
and love of letters. In their court,
and near their perſons, they had
only men of intelligence: they diſ-
puted with the moſt learned of the
Oulémas, and frequently propoſed
to them very embarraſſing queſ-
tions. They wrote, both in proſe
and verſe, with much taſte and
eloquence.

"But from the time that the
hereditary princes were doomed to
a cloſe impriſonment, all the ener-
gies of the mind and heart have
been weakened, and the throne has
no longer been adorned with the
genius

genius of the Osmans, the Mohammeds, and the Selims.

"The influence of this custom, or rather of this arbitrary law of the seraglio, the source of all the evils with which this vast empire is afflicted, imparts sterility to the understanding, and suspends, both with regard to the sovereign and his subjects, all improvement in the arts and sciences. From this first cause an immense number of others are derived, which contribute to produce the same effects: popular prejudices, or rather a superstitious respect for ancient customs, the want of an intimate intercourse with Europeans, the slow progress of printing, the dislike of foreign languages, the neglect of procuring translations of the valuable European works, the aversion to travel out of their own country, the not sending ministers to foreign courts, in fine, the feeble impression which objects naturally make upon minds that have only an imperfect idea of their importance.

"To these general causes may be added the consequences which are continually derived from the vices of administration: the greatest of them all is the instability of employment. The minister and public officer who has been elevated by favour or intrigue, and who trembles every moment lest some artifice should deprive him of his station, attends strictly to his more immediate duties; and sacrificing his zeal to his security, he regards with a careless eye those objects which are unconnected with his situation. They who are the best instructed, who see the defects under which their country labours, and who are convinced of the necessity of a reform, are contented with lamenting its distresses in silence and inaction. No one has courage to come forward to mention a reform, to propose a improvement; but if a plan be re presented to them, they listen to i attentively, make judicious objec tions, appear anxious to put it i practice, only so far however as no to expose themselves to invidious in trigue or to public censure. Whe an officer indulges his zeal, and ca persuade the first personages of th state to subscribe to his opinion, par ticularly the Grand-Vizir and th Mouphty, then there is no impedi ment to the execution of any plan though it might seem to wound th prejudices of the people. In tha case the amiableness of their dispos tions, much more than the imperi ous impulse of necessity, make them submit to be conducted by foreign hand.

"At the conclusion of the las reign, a mathematical school wa proposed to them, and was im mediately established. They were taught the use of the bayonet, of machine for the construction o masts, of a new foundry for cannon of a new corps of artillery, &c which they adopted with eagerness It was insinuated to them, that new forts were necessary at the entrance the Black Sea: they instantly de voted considerable sums to this pur pose. If these establishments have not been attended with adequate success, if they have not been fol lowed by many others equally ad vantageous, it must be attributed to private causes, which are beyond my province to investigate; but these do not prove the want of ap titude in the nation, or of disposi tion in the minister to be instructed, to adopt new systems, and to rise above popular prejudices.

"If some young Mussulmen of distinguished families would visit for instruction the principal cities in Europe, they might, at their re turn

irn to Conſtantinople, operate a enſible revolution, both in letters nd in the public adminiſtration. f even foreigners, acquainted with ne language and manners of the ountry, would wear the oriental reſs, conciliate the dignity of the obles and the ſelf-love of the of- cers who might co-operate with them, and recommend themſelves by their talents, but eſpecially by a prudent and modeſt deportment, there is no doubt, by gaining the confidence of miniſters, they might perſuade them, without difficulty, to adopt new maxims, and ſecretly to direct many uſeful and important plans."

The STATE of FEMALE LITERATURE in ENGLAND in the Sixteenth Century.

[From the Fourth Volume of Dr. KIPPIS's Edition of the BIOGRAPHIA BRITANNICA.]

"IT has been remarked by Mr. Wotton, that no age was ſo roductive of learned women as the ixteenth century. Speaking of the louriſhing condition of learning in hat century, he ſays, it was ſo very nodiſh, that the fair ſex ſeemed to elieve that Greek and Latin added o their charms; and that Plato and Ariſtotle untranſlated were frequent rnaments of their cloſets. "One would think by the effects, that it vas a proper way of educating them, ince there are no accounts in hiſtory f ſo many great women in any one ge, as are to be found between the ears fifteen and ſixteen hundred." Eraſmus, alſo, deſcribing thoſe times, ays, "Scena rerum humanarum nvertitur: monarchi literas neſ- iunt, & fœminæ libris indulgent.— Bellum eſt eum ſexum ad priſca exempla ſeſe poſtliminio recipere. —The ſcene of human affairs is hanged: the monks are ignorant f literature, and women are fond f books."—It is a pleaſing circum- ſtance, that the female ſex ſhould at ength have recourſe to the ancient examples." Learning was then held n ſuch high eſtimation, that ſeveral great men were deſirous that their daughters ſhould be poſſeſſed of it, as well as their ſons. The examples of king Henry the Eighth, in the education of the princeſſes Mary and Elizabeth, and of ſir Thomas More with regard to Mrs. Roper, are thought to have chiefly contributed to the introduction of this cuſtom. There can be no doubt but that the conduct of perſons ſo illuſtrious would have much effect upon the ſentiments of our countrymen, and be productive of imitation. But, beſides this, there was a concurrence of other cauſes; ſuch as the recent origin of printing; the curioſity hence excited in the human mind; the admiration with which the ancient writers, ſo lately brought to light, were contemplated; and the diſtinguiſhed honour that aroſe from literary purſuits. In ſhort, the general ſpirit of the age nouriſhed the principle of training up women in learning. Nor was a ſlight degree of learning deemed ſufficient for them. They were rendered complete miſtreſſes of the Greek and Latin, as well as of the modern languages. Their reading was not

confined to the classic authors, but comprehended the fathers of the church. They could write Greek epistles, and compose Greek verses. It should be remembered, however, that the literature of the women of that period extended comparatively but to a few persons, and those only of considerable rank, the generality of the female sex being in a state of ignorance. There was by no means that diffusion of knowledge, that cultivation of mind, that taste for books, which we now meet with in almost every company of ladies. Neither do we find that the learned women of the sixteenth century produced such works as have continued to be read much by posterity. The most important production of any of sir Anthony Cook's daughters, was lady Bacon's translation of bishop Jewel's Apology; and yet, who but an antiquary would now seek for it, or give himself the trouble of perusing it? Not a single poetess, deserving to be mentioned, arose in this country till the seventeenth century. The duchess of Newcastle, Mrs. Katherine Philips, and Mrs. Behn, appear to have been the first who could, in any degree, merit that appellation. If we come down to later times, we shall be sensible that, independently of poetry, the learned women of the sixteenth century have been far exceeded by the ingenious ladies of the present age, both in the general and extensive utility of their writings, and in the elegancies of composition. We pretend not to enumerate all those whose works will be read and admired by succeeding generations; but it is impossible, whilst we are treating on such a subject, to forget the names of a Cockburn, a Rowe, a Montagu, a Carter, a Chapone, a More, and a Barbauld. We are speaking of prose works only, since otherwise we could not avoid adding to the catalogue a Seward and a Williams. Neither does novel-writing come under our immediate view, to which so many, perhaps too many female authors, apply themselves, though none with a success equal to that of a Burney.

"There is a remark to be made concerning the difference between the literature of the ladies of the sixteenth century, and that of the women of more recent times. The former entered deeply into the study of the ancient languages, whilst the latter, besides acquiring a skill in the modern tongues, especially the French and the Italian, have paid their principal attention to the cultivation of general knowledge. Some of them, however, have been no small proficients in the learning of antiquity. Mrs. Carter stands, without competition, at the head of her sex in this respect; having displayed her accurate acquaintance with the Greek writings and philosophy, in a manner highly honourable to herself, and advantageous to the world. How admirably Mrs. Barbauld hath entered into the spirit of the Latin classics, is apparent from the uncommon propriety and beauty of her mottos. Mrs. Montagu, in her admirable Essay on the Writings and Genius of Shakspeare, hath shewn that, amongst the other qualifications necessary to constitute a critic of the first order, such as a penetrating mind, a fine taste, and a correct and elegant style, she is well acquainted with ancient literature, and rich in the stores of various knowledge.

"Another circumstance observable in the learned ladies of the sixteenth century is, that they were most eminent for their piety. Religion was deeply impressed upon their minds, and, agreeably to the fashion

hion of the times, religion was noſt the ſole topic of their writ-gs. It is pleaſing to reflect, that e beſt female authors of the pre-t day are not inferior to them in ous and virtuous principles and nduct. Thoſe who have the hap-neſs of a perſonal intimacy with Mrs. Montagu, Mrs. Carter, Mrs. Barbauld, Mrs. Chapone, and miſs Hannah More, will know that we ſpeak the truth; to which may be added, that theſe ladies are unaffected in their manners, and that they do not eſteem themſelves above the ordinary duties of domeſtic life.

RITICAL EXAMINATION of Lord SHAFTESBURY'S WORKS.

[From the ſame Work.]

IT now remains that we conſider lord Shafteſbury as a iter: and in this character ſuch ferent repreſentations have been en of him; he has been ſo much plauded, and ſo much condemn- that it will be neceſſary to be newhat copious on the ſubject. d that we may the more effec-lly attain our purpoſe of forming uſt eſtimation of him in his lite-y capacity, we ſhall purſue his rks in the order aſſigned to them himſelf; after which we ſhall e a general ſurvey of him as an thor, and attend particularly to ſtyle and compoſition.

"The firſt piece which occurs in Characteriſtics, is his "Letter ncerning Enthuſiaſm," with re-rd to which we have but few re-rks to make. We have before n that his view in publiſhing it s laudable, as his deſign was to event French prophets and their herents from being perſecuted: d it will ſcarcely now be denied t it was better to treat them with ntempt than ſeverity. As to the ct itſelf, we do not think that it ntitled to any high degree of ap-uſe. It is written with vivacity, d ſometimes with humour; but, the whole, it is a deſultory per-mance, and there are in it ſeveral exceptionable paſſages. There is but little preciſion in it; nor does it convey much philoſophical information on the ſubject of enthuſiaſm. However, on its firſt appearance, it greatly excited the public attention, both at home and abroad.

"The next treatiſe is the "Senſus Communis: an Eſſay on the Freedom of Wit and Humour." This work is more conſiderable in point of extent than the former one, but is nearly entitled to the ſame character. The noble author, in our opinion, is far from being ſpecific in his ideas. Some of the ſentiments here advanced had been occaſionally thrown out in the Letter concerning Enthuſiaſm; but in the preſent tract he enters into a larger defence of the application of raillery to ſubjects of ſpeculative enquiry, and among the reſt to matters of religious opinion. His advocates have aſſerted, that unjuſt repreſentations have often been given of the poſitions maintained by him upon this head. This aſſertion we acknowledge to be true; but, at the ſame time, we are convinced, that lord Shafteſbury, by the inaccurate and unguarded manner in which he hath written, hath laid himſelf fairly open to animadverſion and cenſure. Many perſons have expreſſed

great disapprobation of his ideas concerning the use of wit and humour. To expose his lordship's notions in this respect, is the business of the first of Dr. Brown's Essays on the Characteristics. The doctor contends, with great ingenuity, that ridicule is a species of eloquence; that reason alone is the detector of falshood, and the test of truth; that ridicule can never pretend to this character; that it is one of the most powerful engines, by which error can be maintained and established; and that its proper object is folly of conduct and chiefly affectation. What Dr. Brown maintained was not admitted without controversy. Several writers appeared in defence of the earl of Shaftesbury, and amongst others, the reverend Mr. Charles Bulkley, an ingenious and learned dissenting minister of the city of London. In a work which was ascribed to the late Mr. Ramsay, the painter, the author attempted to shew that ridicule is of two kinds, and that it may be applied to opinions as well as to manners: and we cannot avoid expressing our concurrence with the writer in this view of the subject. The usual objects of ridicule are, indeed, certain improprieties and peculiarities of character and conduct, and to assert, in general, that it is the test of truth, is advancing a false position. Reason is undoubtedly the genuine and proper test of truth. Nevertheless, ridicule may in some cases be justly applied to opinions There are tenets so flagrantly absurd, that it is not easy to refrain from viewing them in the light of humour and raillery; and perhaps the best way of exposing them, may be to display them in that light. That some of the doctrines of popery (not to mention other doctrines) cannot stand this mode of trial, has more than once been evinced, and particularly appears in Tillotson's Rule of Faith. We confess, however, that ridicule, when applied to grave and important subjects, is a very dangerous weapon; that it ought to be adopted with the utmost discretion, and that it hath often been made use of in an improper manner.

"In the third work, the "Soliloquy; or, Advice to an Author," the earl of Shaftesbury rises in his literary character; for there are no many things in the performance which are liable to much censure Dr. Brown speaks of this treatise in terms of high applause. "Here," says the doctor, "bating only a few accidental passages, which will be occasionally pointed out hereafter we shall have little more to do than to approve and admire; the whole dissertation being, in its general turn, one continued instance of its author's knowledge and refined taste in books, life, and manners I could dwell with pleasure on the beauties of this work, if indeed they needed an explanation. But the noble union of truth and eloquence which shines through the whole, as it superfedes, so it would disgrace any attempt of this kind. To the work itself therefore, I recommend the reader." Perhaps this encomium is carried higher than strict truth and justice will warrant. The writer of the present article, upon a late re-perusal of the "Advice to an Author," did not find himself struck with that admiration of which he experienced in his younger days. There appeared to be too many things in it of a desultory not to say of a trifling nature. It contains, however, a variety of excellent matter; and what the noble lord has advanced in recommendation of self-examination, and in

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ence of critics and criticism, is particularly valuable. In this treatise those passages occur, which are supposed to cast a censure on the philosophy of Mr. Locke, and for which the earl of Shaftesbury hath often been condemned."

"The second volume of the Characteristics opens with the "Inquiry concerning Virtue," for the introduction of which preparations had been made by many sentiments occasionally delivered in the former treatises. On the whole, it is a very valuable performance, being finely written, and containing an excellent display of the nature, tendency, and effects of virtuous and benevolent dispositions and actions. Here, if any where, lord Shaftesbury must be allowed to appear to great advantage. We do not mean, however, to assert that the work is perfect, or that it is not in some respects liable to censure, or, at least, to just criticism. Though, from its first appearance it was much admired, and continued long to be held in admiration, it was, nevertheless, early the subject of animadversions. It was attacked by Dr. Bernard de Mandeville, in his "Fable of the Bees," as founded on chimerical principles. But the attack of such a writer was an honour, not a discredit to the work. Dr. Fiddes, in the preface to his "General Treatise of Morality, founded upon Principles of Reason only," has vindicated the "Inquiry" against Mandeville's censures: and has pointed out the truth and beauty of the sentiments advanced by lord Shaftesbury. Another writer, who distinguished himself in defence of his lordship, was the ingenious professor Hutcheson, of Glasgow. Indeed, this gentleman may be considered as having founded in some degree, his system of morals on that of our noble author; or, at least, there was such a coincidence in their ideas, that they must ever be ranked as supporting the same principles, and engaged in the same cause. Several writers, however, of characters far superior to that of Mandeville, and totally abhorrent of his sentiments, have expressed their dissatisfaction with some parts of the "Inquiry concerning Virtue."

"In the "Inquiry concerning Virtue," the earl of Shaftesbury appeared in the close, the logical, and the didactic form. But in the "Moralists, a philosophical Rhapsody," he assumes a higher tone, and figures in a new character. Here he presents himself in the mode of dialogue, and is the emulator of the ancients, and particularly of Plato, in the boldest poetic manner of that eminent philosopher. Whatever may be thought of some things in the "Moralists," and especially of the rapturous kind of language into which his lordship is frequently carried, it is, we think, on the whole, a work of great and extraordinary merit. Dr. Brown had asserted, that the noble author hath strangely attempted to ridicule and dishonour religion in every shape. But, Mr. Bulkley has justly observed, that this assertion is so far from being true, that the whole treatise we are speaking of is written in defence of a Deity and a Providence; and that the cause of pure, genuine, and perfect theism is maintained in it with such strength of judgment, such superiority of reason, such invincible force of argument, such a commanding eloquence, and such a sublime strain of piety, as cannot but naturally and justly recommend it to the strictest attention of all who interest themselves in that highest and most momentous subject. With regard to the mode of composition

adopted in the "Moraliſts," biſhop Hurd ranks it among the beſt of the kind which we have in our language. "There are," ſays the biſhop, "in Engliſh three Dialogues, and but three, that are fit to be mentioned—all of them excellently compoſed in their way, and it muſt be owned, by the very beſt and politeſt of our writers. The dialogues I mean are, the "Moraliſts" of lord Shafteſbury; Mr. Addiſon's "Treatiſe on Medals;" and the "Minute Philoſopher" of biſhop Berkley." According to Dr. Hurd, the ſole fault of theſe applauded perſons is, that they ſuffered themſelves to be miſled by modern practice, and with every ability to excel in this nice and difficult compoſition, have written beneath themſelves, only becauſe they did not keep up to the ancient ſtandard. An eſſential defect in his opinion, runs through them all. "They have taken," he adds, "for their ſpeakers, not real, but fictitious characters; contrary to the practice of the old writers; and to the infinite diſadvantage of this mode of writing, in every reſpect." Perhaps the biſhop has here carried the matter ſomewhat too far. However, without diſputing the propriety of his general ſentiments upon the ſubject, one thing is plain, that the earl af Shafteſbury is regarded by him as amongſt the firſt of our authors in the dialogiſtical form of compoſition. But the moſt complete eulogium on the "Rhapſody," is that which is given by lord Monboddo: nor hath this learned writer ſatisfied himſelf with beſtowing upon it ſome general praiſes, but hath favoured the public with a large and elaborate analyſis of it, from which its excellence will more fully be diſplayed."

"Concerning the third volume of the Characteriſtics, we have little to ſay. It is entitled, "Miſcellaneous Reflections on the preceding Treatiſes, and other critical Subjects:" and is a kind of defence and explanation of what had gone before. This volume abounds with pleaſantry, and contains a number of ingenious remarks; but we cannot regard it as deſerving of any great applauſe. It is written, on the whole, in a deſultory manner; and there are in it many exceptionable paſſages, eſpecially with reſpect to revelation. The ingenious author of "Pompey the Little," in one of his introductory chapters, has humorouſly reckoned the "Miſcellaneous Reflections" among the nothings."

"On the whole of the earl of Shafteſbury's character as an author, much has been ſaid to his praiſe, and much to his diſadvantage. Mr. Bulkley and others have beſtowed upon him the higheſt commendations. With theſe perſons muſt be joined lord Monboddo, who, ſpeaking of the Rhapſodiſt in particular, is not afraid to pronounce it not only the beſt dialogue in Engliſh, out of all degree of compariſon, but the ſublimeſt philoſophy, and if we will join with it the Inquiry—the completeſt ſyſtem both of Morality and Theology, that we have in our in our language, and, at the ſame time, of the greateſt beauty and elegance for the ſtyle and compoſition."

"Several of the authors who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their direct oppoſition to many of the ſentiments which occur in the Characteriſtics, have, nevertheleſs, mixed no ſmall degree of applauſe with their cenſures. "I have again peruſed, with freſh pleaſure, and freſh concern," ſays Mr. Balguy, in his Letter to a Deiſt, "the volumes of Characteriſtics—I heartily wiſh the noble

oble author had been as unprejuiced in writing, as I was in reading. If he had, I am perſuaded his eaders would have found double leaſure and double inſtruction. It eems to me, that his lordſhip had ttle or no temptation to purſue ny ſingularities of opinion by way f diſtinction. His fine genius would ufficiently have diſtinguiſhed him rom vulgar authors, in the high oad of truth and good ſenſe; on hich account his deviations ſeem ne more to be lamented. The urity and politeneſs of his ſtyle, nd the delicacy of his ſentiments, re, and muſt be acknowledged by ll readers of taſte and ſincerity. ut nevertheleſs, as his beauties are ot eaſy to be overlooked, ſo nei-ier are his blemiſhes. His works ppear to be ſtained with ſo many roſs errors, and his fine thoughts re ſo often mingled with abſurdies, that however we may be charmd with the one, we are forced to ondemn the other." Mr. Balguy ath farther obſerved, with regard o the "Inquiry concerning Virue," which is the immediate object f his animadverſion, that though e cannot agree in every particular ontained in it, he finds little more o do than to tell how much he admires it; and that he thinks it ineed, in the main, a performance o juſt and exact, as to deſerve higher raiſes than he is able to give it.

"Dr. Brown's encomium on the Advice to an Author," we have lready mentioned. But with reard to the Characteriſtics in geneal, his commendations are more eſtricted; for he obſerves, that the arl of Shafteſbury hath mingled eauties and blots, faults and excelencies, with a liberal and unſparing and. At the ſame time, the doctor applauds that generous ſpirit of freedom which ſhines throughout the whole."

"Another direct antagoniſt of the earl of Shafteſbury, Dr. Leland, has obſerved, that no impartial man will deny him the praiſe of a fine genius. "The quality of the writer," continues the doctor, "his lively and beautiful imagination, the delicacy of taſte he hath ſhewn in many inſtances, and the graces and embelliſhments of his ſtyle, though perhaps ſometimes too affected, have procured him many admirers. To which may be added his refined ſentiments on the beauty and excellency of virtue, and that he hath often ſpoken honourably of a juſt and good Providence, which miniſters and governs the whole in the beſt manner; and hath ſtrongly aſſerted, in oppoſition to Mr. Hobbes, the natural difference between good and evil; and that man was originally formed for ſociety, and the exerciſe of mutual kindneſs and benevolence; and not only ſo, but for religion and piety too. Theſe things have very much prejudiced many perſons in his favour, and prepared them for receiving, almoſt implicitly, whatever he hath advanced.

"There are writers, and thoſe too of no mean name, who have ſpoken concerning lord Shafteſbury as an author, in the language of general contempt and indignation. In this number we are ſorry to reckon the admirable Jortin; who in the caſe before us, has, we think, departed from that candour of expreſſion, which might have been expected from a man of ſo liberal a mind. He calls his lordſhip a conceited, fantaſtical, and half-learned writer. The eminent poet Gray is not leſs ſevere. "You ſay," addreſſing himſelf to Mr. Stonehewer,

"you cannot conceive how lord Shafteſbury came to be a philoſopher in vogue; I will tell you. Firſt, he was a lord; ſecondly, he was as vain as any of his readers; thirdly, men are very prone to believe what they do not underſtand; fourthly, they will believe any thing at all, provided they are under no obligation to believe it; fifthly, they love to take a new road, when that road leads no where; ſixthly, he was reckoned a fine writer, and ſeemed always to mean more than he ſaid. Would you have any more reaſons? An interval of above forty years has pretty well deſtroyed the charm. A dead lord ranks but with commoners: vanity is no longer in the matter, for the new road is become an old one. The mode of freethinking is like that of ruffs and farthingales, and has given place to the mode of not thinking at all. Once it was reckoned graceful, half to diſcover and half conceal the mind; but now we have been long accuſtomed to ſee it quite naked. Primneſs and affectation of ſtyle, like the good breeding of queen Anne's court, has turned to hoydening and rude familiarity."

"Dr. Johnſon, as we are informed by ſir John Hawkins, bore no good-will to lord Shafteſbury; "neither did he ſeem at all to reliſh the cant of the Shafteſburian ſchool, nor inclined to admit the pretenſions of thoſe who profeſſed it, to taſtes and perceptions which are not common to all men; a taſte in morals, in poetry, and proſe writing, in painting, in ſculpture, in muſic, in architecture, and in government! A taſte that cenſured every production, and induced them to reprobate every effort of genius that fell ſhort of their own capricious ſtandard."

"The grand point in which our noble author has rendered himſelf juſtly obnoxious to the friends of religion, is his having interſperſed through the Characteriſtics a number of inſinuations that appear to be unfavourable to the cauſe of revelation. There have not, however, been wanting many among his admirers, who have thought that he ought not to be reckoned among the deiſtical writers. The author of "Animadverſions upon Dr. Brown's three Eſſays on the Characteriſtics," obſerves, that it is "imprudent, to ſay no worſe, in ſome ſincere advocates for Chriſtianity, to reject the friendly advice and aſſiſtance of ſo maſterly a writer as the lord Shafteſbury, and to give him up to the deiſts, as a patron of infidelity." But it is matter of fact and not conſiderations of prudence or imprudence, that muſt determine the queſtion. In ſupport of his lordſhip's having been a believer in our holy religion, may be alledged, his preface to Whichcot's Sermons, and his Letters to a Student at the Univerſity; in both which works he conſtantly expreſſes himſelf in ſuch language as ſeems to indicate that he was really a Chriſtian. And with regard to the "Letters" it may be remarked, that they were written in 1707, 1708, and 1709, not many years before his lordſhip's death. Nevertheleſs, there are in the Characteriſtics ſo many ſceptical paſſages, that he muſt be conſidered as having been a doubter at leaſt, if not an abſolute diſbeliever, with reſpect to revelation. But if he muſt be ranked amongſt the deiſts we agree with the obſervation of one of his biographers, that he is a very different deiſt from numbers who have appeared in that character; his general principles being much leſs exceptionable.

"The inſinuations that have been throw

rown out by the earl of Shafteſ-ury, to the prejudice of the ſcrip-ures, have been frequently animad-erted upon, and fully confuted. Occaſional ſtrictures on his writings ccur in Berkley's "Minute Philo-her," in Warburton's "Divine Legation of Moſes," and in a mul-itude of other works. Biſhop War-burton has entered pretty copiouſly nto the queſtion, whether ridicule e a teſt of truth. In the produc-ions of Mr. Balguy, Dr. Brown, nd Dr. Leland, lord Shafteſbury's direct and principal antagoniſts, will be found a complete anſwer to whatever is juſtly exceptionable in the Characteriſtics; and a particular conſideration of that part of his lordſhip's ſcheme which repreſents a regard to future rewards, as dero-gating from the dignity and excel-lency of virtue, as well as of his ob-jections to the New Teſtament, be-cauſe it does not inculcate, as po-ſitive duties, the love of our country and private friendſhip.

"That a man of lord Shafteſbu-ry's excellent character, and whoſe principles were, in various reſpects, ſo favourable to piety and virtue, ſhould, in any degree, have been hoſtile to revelation, has been mat-ter of regret to many of his admi-rers; and they have endeavoured to account for ſo diſagreeable a circum-ſtance. Mr. Huntingford has fa-voured us with ſome anecdotes and obſervations upon the ſubject, which we inſert with peculiar pleaſure. "From undoubted authority it is related, that the preface prefixed to Dr. Whichcot's volume of Sermons, was dictated by lord Shafteſbury to his ſiſter the lady Elizabeth, who with her own hand wrote it as he proceeded in pronouncing it. From the ſentiments contained in this pre-face, there is every reaſon to be-lieve what biſhop Butler uſed to aſ-ſert, that had lord Shafteſbury lived in the preſent century, when Chriſti-anity is more perfectly underſtood, he would have been a good Chriſti-an. The intolerant doctrines of the church, which in the laſt century were unfortunately too prevalent, and the intemperate zeal of thoſe miniſters who ſignalized themſelves by enforcing thoſe doctrines, gave great offence to the benevolent mind of this philoſopher: and the tranſition, from a diſlike of ſuch teachers, to diſapprobation of the ſyſtem, which he erroneouſly con-ceived to inculcate and encourage perſecution and ſpiritual pride, was eaſy and natural. And hence it ſeems to have ariſen, that the let-ters in which Mr. Locke recom-mended Chriſtianity to his lord-ſhip, were of no avail. It is to be lamented that theſe letters are not now to be found; though many years have not elapſed ſince they were read by two gentlemen, who were ſo affected by the ſtrong and preſſing terms in which Mr. Locke expreſſed his ſentiments, that they could not abſtain from tears. Per-haps however theſe letters might have leſs effect on his lordſhip's mind, from a degree of diſlike with which he conſidered Mr. Locke's phi-loſophy reſpecting the human mind, and its being void of natural ten-dencies to what is right and fit. Mr. Locke does not ſeem to have been ſo thoroughly read in ancient philo-ſophy, or indeed ancient learning of any kind, as lord Shafteſbury was; and it is ſaid that diſputes on the real excellence of ſuch learning were ſometimes carried on between them with a degree of warmth; in-ſomuch that Mr. Locke, in a great meaſure, loſt the affection of lord Shafteſbury. No man ſeems to have ſtudied the Greek philoſophers to more effectual purpoſe than the au-thor

thor of the Characteriſtics; for he has not only caught their manner of inveſtigating the ſubject, not only explained the magnanimous principles on which the beſt ſchool founded its ſyſtem, but has left indiſputable marks of a mind deeply impreſſed with a love of rectitude."

"There is a tradition, that, amongſt other difficulties which occurred to the earl of Shafteſbury with regard to the truth of the Chriſtian revelation, he was ſtartled at the idea of its containing the doctrine of the eternity of hell torments; that he conſulted ſome eminent churchmen, whether the New Teſtament poſitively aſſerted that doctrine; and that, upon being aſſured that it did, he declared himſelf incapable of aſſenting to a ſyſtem of religion which maintained a tenet ſo repugnant to all his views of the benignity of the great Governor of the univerſe. If his lordſhip had lived in the preſent day, he would have found a number of divines who would have given him quite a different anſwer. They would have informed him, that, in their opinion, Chriſtianity holds out no doctrine of ſo dreadful a nature; and that, at the very utmoſt, it only denounces the final extinction of the impenitently wicked; ſo that ſuch, if there be any ſuch, who after all, ſhall remain incorrigibly corrupt and abandoned, will, at length, no longer exiſt in the creation of God.

"The ſtyle of lord Shafteſbury's compoſitions is a point upon which various and contradictory ſentiments have been entertained. For a conſiderable time he was deemed one of our moſt polite and elegant writers; and how highly he was thought of in this reſpect, has appeared from ſeveral of the paſſages already cited."

"On the re-peruſal of the Characteriſtics, we have been clearly convinced that the noble author was almoſt always excellent in the diſpoſition of his words, but that in the choice of them he is frequently liable to cenſure. A ſtriking inſtance of his nicety, not to ſay faſtidiouſneſs, with regard to compoſition, is diſplayed in the difference between the ſurreptitious edition of his Inquiry concerning Virtue, and the corrected one, as it now ſtands in his works. It affords a curious and uſeful example of the *Limæ Labor*; the art of poliſhing language, breaking long ſentences, and working up an imperfect draught into a highly finiſhed performance. There is one diſagreeable circumſtance in reading lord Shafteſbury's compoſitions, which is, that he adopt the faſhion which at that time prevailed, of writing many of our words in a contracted form. This was then ſuppoſed to contribute to the eaſe and politeneſs of ſtyle; but it was far from producing ſuch an effect; and accordingly, it is now wiſely rejected by our beſt authors."

"The fate of lord Shafteſbury as an author, may furniſh uſeful inſtruction to thoſe who build their expectations on literary fame. For a conſiderable time he ſtood in high reputation as a polite writer, and was regarded by many as a ſtandard of elegant compoſition. His imitators, as well as admirers, were numerous, and he was eſteemed the head of the ſchool of the ſentimental philoſophy. Of late years, he has been as much depreciated as he was heretofore applauded; and in both caſes the matter has been carried to an extreme. At length, it is to be hoped, that he will find his due place in the ranks of literature; and that, without being extravagantly

antly extolled, he will continue to e read, and in ſome degree to be dmired. This tribute, at leaſt, is ue to his "Inquiry concerning Virtue," and to his "Moraliſts;" nd in a great meaſure to his "Advice to an Author."

"But whatever becomes of lord haſteſbury's character as a writer, e was excellent as a man. This ppears from every teſtimony that emains concerning him. "It muſt e owned," ſays biſhop Warburton, that this lord had many excellent ualities, both as a man and a writer. He was temperate, chaſte, honeſt, and a lover of his country." There is a paſſage in one of the earl of Shafteſbury's letters to Robert Moleſworth, eſq. which is worthy of notice. "I am perſuaded," ſays his lordſhip, "to think no vices will grow upon me: for in this I have been ever ſincere, to make myſelf as good as I was able, and to live for no other end." The man who could ſpeak thus concerning himſelf is entitled to the beſt applauſe, the applauſe of the heart."

ESSAY on MUSICAL CRITICISM.

From the Third Volume of Dr. BURNEY's General HISTORY of MUSIC.

"AS muſic may be defined the the art of pleaſing by the ucceſſion and combination of agreeable ſounds, every hearer has a right o give way to his feelings, and be leaſed or diſſatisfied without knowedge, experience, or the fiat of critics; but then he has certainly no right to inſiſt on others being pleaſed or diſſatisfied in the ſame degree. I can very readily forgive the man who admires a different muſic from that which pleaſes me, provided he does not extend his hatred or contempt of my favourite muſic to myſelf, and imagine that on the excluſive admiration of any one ſtyle of muſic, and a cloſe adherence to it, all wiſdom, taſte, and virtue depend.

"Criticiſm in this art would be better taught by ſpecimens of good compoſition and performance than by reaſoning and ſpeculation. But there is a certain portion of enthuſiaſm connected with a love of the fine arts, and which bids defiance to every curb of criticiſm; and the poetry, painting, or muſic that leaves us on the ground, and does not tranſport us into the regions of imagination beyond the reach of cold criticiſm, may be correct, but is devoid of genius and paſſion. There is, however, a tranquil pleaſure, ſhort of rapture, to be acquired from muſic, in which intellect and ſenſation are equally concerned; the analyſis of this pleaſure is, therefore, the ſubject of the preſent ſhort eſſay; which, it is hoped, will explain and apologize for the critical remarks which have been made in the courſe of this hiſtory, on the works of great maſters, and prevent their being conſtrued into pedantry and arrogance.

"Indeed, muſical criticiſm has been ſo little cultivated in our country, that its firſt elements are hardly known. In juſtice to the late Mr. Aviſon, it muſt be owned, that he was the firſt, and almoſt the only writer, who attempted it. But his judgment

judgment was warped by many prejudices. He exalted Rameau and Geminiani at the expence of Handel, and was a declared foe to modern German ſymphonies. There have been many treatiſes publiſhed on the art of muſical compoſition and performance, but none to inſtruct ignorant lovers of muſic how to liſten, or to judge for themſelves. So various are muſical ſtyles, that it requires not only extenſive knowledge, and long experience, but a liberal, enlarged, and candid mind, to diſcriminate and allow to each its due praiſe: "Nullius addictus jurare in verba magiſtri." A critic ſhould have none of the contradictions and narrow partialities of ſuch as can ſee but a ſmall angle of the art; of whom there are ſome ſo bewildered in fugues and complicated contrivances that they can receive pleaſure from nothing but canonical anſwers, imitations, inverſions, and counter-ſubject; while others are equally partial to light, ſimple, frivolous melody, regarding every ſpecies of artificial compoſition as mere pedantry and jargon. A chorus of Handel and a graceful opera ſong ſhould not preclude each other: each has its peculiar merit; and no one muſical production can compriſe the beauties of every ſpecies of compoſition. It is not unuſual for diſputants, in all the arts, to reaſon without principles; but this, I believe, happens more frequently in muſical debates than any other. By principles, I mean the having a clear and preciſe idea of the conſtituent parts of a good compoſition, and of the principal excellencies of perfect execution. And it ſeems as if the merit of muſical productions, both as to compoſition and performance, might be eſtimated according to De Piles' ſteel-yard, or teſt of merit among painters. If a complete muſical compoſition of different movements were analyſed, it would perhaps be found to conſiſt of ſome of the following ingredients: melody, harmony, modulation, invention, grandeur, fire, pathos, taſte, grace, and expreſſion; while the executive part would require neatneſs, accent, energy, ſpirit, and feeling; and, in a vocal performer, or inſtrumental, where the tone depends on the player, power, clearneſs, ſweetneſs; brillancy of execution in quick movements, and touching expreſſions in ſlow.

"But as all theſe qualities are ſeldom united in one compoſer or player, the piece or performer that compriſes the greateſt number of theſe excellencies, and in the moſt perfect degree, is entitled to preeminence: though the production or performer that can boaſt of any of theſe conſtituent qualities cannot be pronounced totally devoid of merit. In this manner, a compoſition, by a kind of chemical proceſs, may be decompounded as well as any other production of art or nature.

"Prudent critics, without ſcience, ſeldom venture to pronounce their opinion of a compoſition, deciſively, till they have heard the name of the maſter, or diſcovered the ſentiments of a profeſſor; but here the poor author is often at the mercy of prejudice, or envy. Yet the opinion of profeſſors of the greateſt integrity is not equally infallible concerning every ſpecies of muſical merit. To judge minutely of ſinging for inſtance, requires ſtudy and experience in that particular art. Indeed, I have long ſuſpected ſome very great inſtrumental performers of not ſufficiently feeling or reſpecting real good ſinging. Rapid paſſages neatly executed ſeem to pleaſe them infinitely more than the fineſt meſſa di voce, or tender expreſſion of ſlow notes, which the ſweeteſt voice, the greateſt art, and moſt exquiſite ſen-

ſibility

fibility can produce. They frequently refer all excellence so much to their own performance and perfections, that the adventitious qualities of singers who imitate a hautbois, a flute, or violin, are rated higher than the colouring and refinements that are peculiar to vocal expression; which instrumental performers ought to feel, respect, and try to imitate, however impossible it may be to equal them: approximation would be something, when more cannot be obtained. Of composition and the genius of particular instruments, whose opinion, but that of composers and performers, who are likewise possessed of probity and candour, can be trusted? There are, alas! but too many professors who approve of nothing which they themselves have not produced or performed. Old musicians complain of the extravagance of the young; and these again of the dryness and inelegance of the old.

"And yet, among the various styles of composition and performance, the partial and capricious tastes of lovers of music, and the different sects into which they are divided, it seems as if the following criteria would admit of little dispute.

"In church music, whether jubilation, humility, sorrow, or contrition are to be expressed, the words will enable the critic to judge; but of the degree of dignity, gravity, force, and originality of the composition, few but professors can judge in detail, tho' all of the general defect.

"In hearing dramatic music little attention is pointed by the audience to any thing but the airs and powers of the principal singers; and yet, if the character, passion, and importance of each personage in the piece is not distinctly marked and supported; if the airs are not contrasted with each other, and the part of every singer in the same scene specifically different in measure, compass, time, and style, the composer is not a complete master of his profession.

"Good singing requires a clear, sweet, even, and flexible voice, equally free from nasal and guttural defects. It is but by the tone of voice and articulation of words that a vocal performer is superior to an instrumental. If in swelling a note the voice trembles or varies its pitch, or the intonations are false, ignorance and science are equally offended; and if a perfect shake, good taste in embellishment, and a touching expression be wanting, the singer's reputation will make no great progress among true judges. If in rapid divisions the passages are not executed with neatness and articulation; or in adagios, if light and shade, pathos, and variety of colouring and expression are wanting, the singer may have merit of certain kinds, but is still distant from perfection.

"Of perfect performance on an instrument, who can judge accurately but those who know its genius and powers, defects and difficulties? What is natural and easy on one instrument, is often not only difficult but impracticable on an other. Arpeggios, for instance, which are so easy on the violin and harpsichord, are almost impossible on the hautbois and flute. And the rapid iteration of notes which give the violin player such little trouble, are impracticable on the harpsichord with the same finger. Those instruments of which the tone and intonation depend on the player, as the violin, flute, hautbois, &c. are more difficult than harps and keyed-instruments, where the player is neither answerable for the goodness of the tone nor truth of intonation.

However,

However, there are difficulties on the harpſichord of another kind, to ballance the account, ſuch as the two hands playing two different parts in diſſimilar motion at once, and often three or four parts with each hand. Of a good ſhake, a ſweet tone, and neat execution, almoſt every hearer can judge; but whether the muſic is good or bad, the paſſages hard or eaſy, two much or too little embelliſhed by the player, ſcience and experience can only determine.

"In chamber muſic, ſuch as cantatas, ſingle ſongs, ſolos, trios, quartets, concertos, and ſymphonies of few parts, the compoſer has leſs exerciſe for reflection and intellect, and the power of pleaſing in detached pieces by melody, harmony, natural modulation, and ingenuity of contrivance, fewer reſtraints, and fewer occaſions for grand and ſtriking effects, and expreſſion of the paſſions, than in a connected compoſition for the church or the ſtage. Many an agreeable leſſon, ſolo, ſonata, and concerto has been produced by muſicians who would be unable to compoſe a Te Deum for voices and inſtruments, or to intereſt and ſatisfy an audience during a ſingle act of an opera. We never have heard of Corelli, Geminiani, or Tartini attempting vocal melody, and the muſic merely inſtrumental of the greateſt vocal compoſers is often meagre, common, and inſipid. There are limits ſet to the powers of every artiſt, and, however univerſal his genius, life is too ſhort for univerſal application.

"It was formerly more eaſy to compoſe than play an adagio, which generally conſiſted of a few notes that were left to the taſte and abilities of the performer; but as the compoſer ſeldom found his ideas fulfilled by the player, adagios are now made more chantant and intereſting in themſelves, and the performer is leſs put to the torture for embelliſhments.

"In 1752, Quantz claſſed quartettos at the head of inſtrumental muſic, calling them the touch-ſtone of an able compoſer; adding, that they had not yet been much in faſhion. The divine Haydn, however, has ſince that time removed all kind of complaint on that account, having produced ſuch quartets for number and excellence, as have never been equalled in any ſpecies of compoſition at any other period of time.

"In compoſing and playing a ſolo, the leaſt complicated of all muſic in parts, much knowledge, ſelection, invention, and refinement are neceſſary. Beſides conſulting the genius of the inſtrument and power of the performer, new, intereſting, and ſhining paſſages muſt be invented, which will at once pleaſe and ſurpriſe the hearer, and do honour to the compoſer and performer. And who can judge of the originality of the compoſition, its fitneſs for the inſtrument, or degree of praiſe due to the performer, but thoſe who have either ſtudied compoſition, practiſed the ſame inſtrument, or heard an infinite variety of muſic and great performers of the ſame kind?

"The famous queſtion, therefore, of Fontenelle: "Sonate, que veux tu?" to which all ſuch recur as have not ears capable of vibrating to the ſweetneſs of well-modulated ſounds, would never have been aſked by a real lover or judge of muſic. But men of wit of all countries being accuſtomed to admiration and reverence in ſpeaking upon ſubjects within their competence, forget, or hope the world forgets, that a good poet, painter, phyſician, or philoſopher, is no more likely to be

a good muſician without ſtudy ctice, and good ears, than an- er man. But if a lover and ge of muſic had aſked the ſame ſtion as Fontenelle; the ſonata uld anſwer: "I would have you n with attention and delight to ingenuity of the compoſition, neatneſs of the execution, ſweet- of the melody, and the rich- of the harmony, as well as to rms of refined tones, lengthen- nd poliſhed into paſſion.

There is a degree of refine- nt, delicacy, and invention, ch lovers of ſimple and common ſic can no more comprehend n the Aſiatics harmony. It is y underſtood and felt by ſuch as quit the plains of ſimplicity, etrate the mazes of art and con- ance, climb mountains, dive in- lells, or croſs the ſeas in ſearch extraneous and exotic beauties h which the monotonous melody popular muſic has not yet been bellifhed. What judgment and good taſte admire at firſt hearing, makes no impreſſion on the public in general, but by dint of repetition and habitude. A ſyllogiſm that is very plain to a logician, is incomprehenſible to a mind unexerciſed in aſſociating and combining abſtract ideas. The extraneous, and ſeemingly forced and affected modulation of the German compoſers of the preſent age, is only too much for us, becauſe we have heard too little. Novelty has been acquired, and attention excited, more by learned modulation in Germany than by new and difficult melody in Italy. We diſlike both, perhaps only becauſe we are not gradually arrived at them; and difficult and eaſy, new and old, depend on the reading, hearing, and knowledge of the critic. The moſt eaſy, ſimple, and natural is new to youth and inexperience, and we grow nice and faſtidious by frequently hearing compoſitions of the firſt claſs, exquiſitely performed.

STRUCTIONS for the BARRISTER in extracting TESTIMONY from VIVA VOCE Evidence.

[From the Poſtſcript to DEINOLOGY.]

LET us begin to examine our witneſs; firſt, however, let aſk, have you a clear and com- henſive idea of the points to be intained, of the outline of the s of your caſe, of the place and er in which every circumſtance eady diſcloſed, or to be diſcloſed, probably exiſting in the caſe, ge themſelves to fill that outline, the conſiſtence or inconſiſtence teſtimony given, or to be giv- with all the collateral circum- ices which may come out in evi- ice? If you are ſo far maſter of your caſe, and you know how to digeſt your materials into queſtions adapted to your purpoſe, and properly arranged, you may begin to examine. By this time, I think, you will be ready to confeſs, that I had good reaſon for recommending to you to make yourſelf familiar with geometry. Without the habit of thinking logically or geometrically, you will feel that it is impoſſible that you ſhould acquire that facility and dexterity in framing and arranging your queſtions, which is neceſſary to enable you to conduct

conduct an examination with effect.

"I will suppose you thus far qualified to enter upon this sort of business, and that you are to conduct an original examination, for the purpose of establishing the facts of your case, out of which the right to be insisted upon on behalf of your client is to arise. Begin with leading your witness to the point from whence he is to set out: take care to keep him in his road; see that he drops nothing by the way; if you find that he has left a chasm in his evidence, remember to put proper questions to him to fill it up; if parts of his evidence should require explanation, put him upon giving the proper explanations: your business will be to take care that your witness deliver a clear and a connected testimony; and above all, to observe that the thread of his narration be not broken; for then all will be confusion and thick darkness.

"As these rules are observed or neglected, you will see one advocate dexterously leading an ignorant witness into his subject, and carrying him through a long examination in a clear and luminous order, without difficulty, or even hesitation on the part of the witness; and another, after labouring for an hour to get him from the alehouse, the *terminus a quo* of every vulgar narrator, finding himself entangled, the cart before the horse, unable to proceed, with all that has been said perfectly unintelligible. I remember to have heard of a person in a judicial character, who was so seized by the pressure of that sort of confusion, as to break out, after many vain efforts to disentangle himself into this exclamation;—"Either I am the dullest fellow ever lived, or thou art the most incomprehensible rascal I ever heard!"—"I don't know how th may be," replied the witness, wi a provoking *sang froid*, "but I w behind the tub, as I told you b fore." And after the explanatio the thing remained as inexplicab as before.

"Perhaps you are next to cr examine your adversary's witne Cross-examination, in its prop sense, means sifting and trying t timony given on the adverse pa This is a very delicate operatio it requires a piercing eye, qui apprehension, great sagacity, a infinite address. The advocate m see in an instant, the whole effect the testimony which he is about sift; its bearings upon every p of the case; his own case as well that of his adversary; its strong a its weak places: he should know t mechanism of the human min be able to trace the passions throu all their workings: he must be a to discern the character of the w ness, read his thoughts in his cou tenance, and anticipate them: an able and judicious advocate, w has laid his foundation well, and practised in his business, and fu ciently instructed by his brief, w generally catch all this, as it we intuitively: but if he happens n to have so clear and comprehens a view of every thing as he co wish, he will carefully reconnoi the ground before he attempts a attack: he will observe two gol rules; he will never ask a qu tion, without having a good rea to assign for asking it; and he w never hazard a critical questi without having good ground to lieve that the answer must be in favour.

"How often may a close obser of the business at Nisi Prius h seen facts and circumstances, wh were essential to the adversary's c

ıd had been left ſhort, or entirely rgot in the original examination, ought out or clenched by a ſuper- ıous or an unguarded croſs-exa- ination? I remember to have eard of an advocate of ſome emi- ence who was very ſubject to this firmity of random croſs-examina- on, and who when he had damn- l his client's cauſe by an injudi- ous queſtion, uſed to exclaim with reat complacency; I thought ſo— am very glad the truth is come ut: having left himſelf nothing to , but to fold up his brief and alk out of court.

"A judicious advocate, when e has diſcovered in what part the itneſs is moſt vulnerable, will not e too eager to make his thruſt in roſs-examination: he will firſt con- der whether the blot in the eſtimony be a proper ſubject for roſs-examination, or for obſerva- ion upon the evidence; uſing it in he latter way, he has the advan- age of taking it with all its im- erfections; whereas the propoſing queſtion upon it, puts the witneſs pon his guard, and enables him to ntroduce qualifications and expla- ations, and thereby to ſet himſelf ight, and to avoid the whole force f the obſervation, which in its ori- inal ſtate, it was expoſed to.

"Croſs-examinations are not un- requently uſed as the means of in- roducing obſervations and criti- iſm upon the evidence in the ſhape f queſtions to which no anſwer an be given, nor is any expected. This appears to me to be an irre- gular and a miſchievous practice; looſe, miſplaced, not ſufficiently pointed, and too much detached; ſuch obſervations ſeldom have any effect at the time, and they fail of their effect in the proper place, be- ing benumbed by the dullneſs of re- petition.

"If theſe very looſe hints were at- tended to, croſs-examinations would become always harmleſs, and might happen ſometimes to be uſeful. They would certainly be very much re- duced in their length; but I pro- poſe to reduce them within a ſtill narrower compaſs.

"By a ſtrange abuſe of croſs-exa- mination, the Engliſh bar are in the habit of examining the adver- ſary's witneſs to new matter, under the colour of croſs-examining. I have a third golden rule, which will correct this very bad practice, ne- ver attempt to prove by your ad- verſary's witneſs, what you are pre- pared to prove by your own. There is a ſort of triumph in for- cing your adverſary to prove your caſe, and ſo deſtroying him by his own evidence: but it very rarely happens, that the attempt ſucceeds, and the failure, which will happen nine times in ten, is by no means a matter of indifference to your cauſe. If the witneſs denies the fact you wiſh him to prove, you are then to ſet out with having your caſe denied upon oath, which you might have avoided: and if you hap- pen to have but one witneſs on your part, you bring upon yourſelf the puzzle, which one witneſs againſt one, neceſſarily introduces: but your adverſary's witneſs may do worſe; he may admit your caſe and clog it with ſuch circumſtances as ſhall render it of no uſe to you. Many a defence has been cut up by the roots in that way. Once in a thouſand times good uſe may be made of an examination of this kind. The fact may be ſo notorious, and ſo capable of proof, and ſo incapa- ble of explanation, that to deny it, or to attempt to explain it, would blaſt the witneſs's credit entirely; but this ſo rarely happens, and the hazard of diſcloſing your caſe too

ſoon, and putting it in your adverſary's power to anticipate it, is ſo great, that I adhere to my general rule. By way of illuſtration, I will relate a circumſtance which happened in the memorable caſe of the proſecution of a man of faſhion, ſome few years ago, for a rape. There was an application to the court of King's-Bench to admit the party accuſed to bail. Upon that occaſion, ſome of the leading circumſtances of his defence were diſcloſed in an affidavit, which was laid before that court. The noble judge who preſided in that court, and who ſhould have been immortal, obſerved, that the party accuſed muſt have great confidence in his innocence to venture to diſcloſe ſo much of his defence, before the trial. When the trial came on, the counſel for the priſoner had the mortification to find themſelves ſtripped of almoſt the whole of their defence. All the circumſtances which had been diſcloſed in the affidavit, were now interwoven into the proſecutor's evidence, and made a part of the accuſation. One of thoſe circumſtances was, that on the morning which ſucceeded the fatal night, when the deed was done, the lady had made up, diſtributed in the family, and herſelf worn wedding favours. This ſeemed a circumſtance not to be explained by one who had complained of having been raviſhed. The lady in giving her evidence, after ſtating the horrors of the night, threw into her narration, that they had had the cruelty and barbarity to add inſult to diſhonour, by compelling her to make up, diſtribute, and wear their deteſtable favours. In any view of this caſe, it was highly injudicious to diſcloſe ſuch circumſtances. If the party accuſed was guilty of the crime imputed to him, theſe circumſtances, whatever might be the complexion of them, muſt have been capable of explanation; and when explained, might be made conſiſtent with guilt. In which caſe, there could be no hope of deriving any advantage from them to the party accuſed, but from their being firſt diſcloſed at the trial; when, on the ſudden, it might have been difficult to have given the explanation.

"If the party accuſed was innocent, and there was a wicked combination to accuſe him, would the conſpirators heſitate to add more falſhoods to their falſe teſtimony, by denying or proceeding yet more artfully and effectively, by anticipating, qualifying, and explaining away every thing which they were thus appriſed, was meant to be inſiſted upon, by way of defence.

"I have claimed for the Engliſh bar the undoubted right of ſifting to the very bottom the teſtimony of the moſt upright witneſſes. I claim it for them upon this principle, that human teſtimony is in its own nature uncertain. Philoſophers doubt whether any two men perceive the ſame object exactly in the ſame manner. Moſt undoubtly men of unqueſtionable integrity very often perceive the ſame object in very different manners. They muſt relate what they have perceived in very different manners. To which of two ſuch witneſſes are we to give implicit credit, becauſe he is a man of unqueſtionable integrity? we muſt ſift and try the teſtimony of both by ſuch teſts as collateral circumſtances happen to furniſh.

The neceſſity of doing it in this caſe is apparent: but if two men of integrity may differ in their perceptions and conſequently, in their teſtimony, it follows that every man of integrity may be miſtaken; and

ıd it becomes equally neceſſary ıat the teſtimony of every man of tegrity whether actually oppoſed not, ſhould be open to all poſſi- e examination and trial; and ıerefore, let the witneſs who is *mni exceptione major*, not feel him- lf offended, if he is queſtioned ith all the ſtrictneſs which the rongeſt grounds of ſuſpicion could his judgment warrant. He has othing to do but to keep himſelf ool, and give direct anſwers. A lain countryman, with his Yes and lo, never fails to diſconcert the ioſt captious examiner of a witneſs ıe bar can furniſh. But if wit- eſſes will have favourite notions ıd opinions, will be anxious to efend them, will put themſelves in poſture of defence, and parry the ıruſts that are made againſt them, ıey muſt not complain if they find ıemſelves in difficulties; the fault es on their own ſide.

" The claim to an unlimited reedom of examination being thus reſiſtible, and the exerciſe of it bſolutely neceſſary, it follows that ıe advocate is unequal to his duty, he does not know how to execute : but in executing it, let him ake care not to contract the very ad habit of exerciſing his talent ithout a careful diſcrimination of bjects. Milton did well to arm thuriel with a ſpear of ſo divine a emper, that its touch was the teſt f truth: but if he had made Ithu- iel try it upon the angel Gabriel, s well as upon the fiend, he would ave made him do a very impertı- ent thing.

" When an advocate teazes a fair vitneſs unneceſſarily, he diſgraces imſelf, and endangers his cauſe. f you doubt his accuracy, try it by ircumſtances, but treat him with eſpect; let your countenance mark o him neither ſurpriſe nor diſſatis- faction, nor any other emotion, which may diſcover to him that you entertain doubts.

" Indeed I ought to lay it down as a fourth golden rule, that the advocate, who has the conduct of viva voce examination muſt be maſter of himſelf, and acquire a perfect command of his countenance on the moſt trying occaſions. Many a cauſe has been ruined by the advocate not being able to conceal that he was thunderſtruck by ſome circumſtance coming out unexpectedly. There was one gentleman at the Engliſh bar ſome years ago, who was perfectly proof againſt this ſort of impreſſion. I have been told on a very deciſive circumſtance coming out againſt him, that the perſon who ſat next to him, whiſpered in his ear, You are undone: he anſwered, with a countenance, in which not the leaſt emotion could be traced—Huſh, the chance of war!—He ſucceeded. This gentleman had the double advantage of reading the diſtreſſes of others in their countenances, as he concealed his own.

" I have told you how a fair witneſs ſhould be treated; let us go to the other extreme, and ſuppoſe you were to croſs-examine a determined villain, it will be your duty to ſurround him, to preſs him, to diſtreſs him, and to expoſe him: but let it be done fairly. Think of him as of a determined villain, but addreſs him as a witneſs under the protection of a court of juſtice, not yet demonſtrated to be other than an honeſt man. Let the evidence you draw from him, make the impreſſion of his character.

" It is impoſſible to ſtate a caſe in which a witneſs ſhould be treated roughly. If you attempt it, every one feels offended in the perſon of the witneſs. You make your work

more difficult; the witneſs ſhuts himſelf up, conſiders you as his enemy, and ſtands upon his defence: whereas an open countenance, and an eaſy, inſinuating addreſs, unlocks his breaſt and diſarms him of his caution, if he has any.

"Looſe as theſe hints are, if you will give yourſelf the trouble to attend to them, I think I may promiſe you, that you will have an advantage over thoſe who examine at random. I even perſuade myſelf that you might acquire a conſiderable degree of dexterity in this important branch of your profeſſion: but let me entreat you to take care not to acquire this dexterity at the expence of common honeſty, as Dr. Hill uſed to ſay, There is more reaſon for this caution than good men would think."

ANSWER to the QUESTION, What is a VERB?

[From Mr. PICKBOURN's Diſſertation on the Engliſh Verb.]

"WHAT is a Verb? The definitions given of it by learned men are very different: I ſhall particularly conſider two of them. Dr. Beattie, p. 373. defines it to be "a word, neceſſary in every ſentence, ſignifying the affirmation of ſome attribute, together with the deſignation of time, number, and perſon." According to this definition, neither infinitive modes, nor gerunds, nor ſupines, nor participles, are verbs; for they neither contain an affirmation, nor ſignify time, nor are limited either to number or perſon.—Biſhop Lowth ſays, "a verb is a word which ſignifies to be, to do, or to ſuffer." This definition I think a very good one. It includes nothing more than what is eſſential; and is, therefore, equally applicable to the verb in all languages, and in all its various forms.

"If affirmation be eſſential to verbs, I think it poſſible for a tolerably copious language to be formed with only one verb in it; for infinitives, participles, adjectives, &c. may be ſo united to nouns by the copula, or verb is, alone, as to expreſs almoſt any idea which we can have occaſion to communicate. But if the circumſtances of time, perſon, and number, be eſſential to verbs, I queſtion whether there may not be languages in the world without a ſingle verb in them; and then what ſhall we ſay to the former part of Dr. Beattie's definition, that a verb is a word neceſſary in every ſentence? The profeſſor's definition is a very good deſcription of a finite verb, in any of thoſe highly improved and poliſhed languages with which we are converſant; and I preſume it was only intended as ſuch. But I cannot help ſuppoſing there may be languages ſpoken by rude uninformed ſavages, which are not yet in ſo high a ſtate of cultivation as to be poſſeſſed of verbs ſo curiouſly contrived, and artificially conſtructed, as to anſwer that deſcription.

"All languages in their commencement muſt have been extremely ſimple. If children were ſo ſituated as to hear no human voice but their own, they would undoubtedly ſoon learn to communicate their thoughts to each other by ſounds, as well as by ſigns; but their firſt efforts of ſpeech would be very imperfect. Probably nouns, or the names of things, adjectives expreſſing their qualities,

ıd verbs denoting their actions, ould be firſt invented.

" Dr. Adam Smith, in a very rious treatiſe on the Formation of anguages, printed in 1781, at the ıd of his Theory of Moral Senti- ents, obſerves, p. 459. " Verbs uſt neceſſarily have been coëval ith the very firſt attempts to- ards the formation of language. No firmation can be expreſſed with- ıt the aſſiſtance of ſome verb. We ever ſpeak but in order to expreſs ır opinion that ſomething either is r is not. But the word denoting his event, or this matter of fact, hich is the ſubject of our affirma- on, muſt always be a verb." This bſervation is undoubtedly juſt, ſo ar as it reſpects the copula, or verb f exiſtence, is. But this was not the ıeaning of the ingenious author; or, in p 469. he adds, " there is ı every language a verb, known y the name of the ſubſtantive erb; in Latin, ſum; in Engliſh, *am*. This verb denotes not the xiſtence of any particular event, ut exiſtence in general. It is, up- n this account, the moſt abſtract nd metaphyſical of all verbs; and, onſequently, could by no means be word of early invention." But, hough the doctor ſays it could by ıo means be a word of early inven- ion, yet he acknowledges (in my ıumble apprehenſion, not very con- iſtently), that it is in every langu- ıge, and conſequently in languages which are in their earlieſt infancy. If it was not of early invention, there was a time when converſation was carried on without it: and if ſuch a language ever did exiſt, why may not ſuch a one now exiſt?

" When I controvert an opinion ſupported by ſuch reſpectable autho- rity, it becomes me to ſpeak with diffidence. But the more attentively I conſider this ſubject, the more clearly it appears to me, that the verb ſubſtantive, or copula, *is*, is not only the moſt neceſſary, but the moſt ſimple of all verbs; for it con- tains nothing more than an aſſer- tion, or affirmation, that a thing exiſts; and no propoſition can be more ſimple than this, that a thing is, or is not; exiſts, or does not exiſt. The idea conveyed by it is coëval with thought itſelf; for what can we think about, unleſs we think that ſomething is, or exiſts? And it is ſo ſimple, that it is in- capable of any diviſion, or explana- tion; and as fully comprehended by the rudeſt ſavage, as by the moſt enlightened philoſopher.

" The copula, or verb of exiſ- tence, *is*, appears, therefore, to have been coëval with language itſelf. But we have not the ſame evidence to convince us that that muſt neceſ- ſarily have been the caſe of any other finite verb; for the copula, *is*, con- taining only an affirmation, is much more ſimple than a verb which unites in one word both an attribute and an affirmation. Since, there- fore, people, in their firſt attempts to expreſs their ideas by words, would ſcarcely think of any thing more than what was abſolutely ne- ceſſary, it is probable they would be ſome time before they invented any other word containing in itſelf an aſſertion or affirmation: for they would not very early think of con- triving words ſo complex in their na- ture, as to include in them both the name of an action and an aſſertion.

" I conjecture that the firſt mode of expreſſing actions or paſſions would be by participles or verbal nouns, i. e. words ſignifying the names of the actions or paſſions they wanted to deſcribe: and theſe words, connected with their ſubject by the copula is (a word, as we have ſhewn coëval with ſpeech itſelf), might

in these rude beginnings of language, tolerably well supply the place of verbs, e. g. from observing the operations of nature, such words as *rain* or *raining*, *thunder* or *thundering*, would soon be invented; and, by adding the copula *is*, they would say, *thundering*, or thunder, *is*, or *is not*; *raining*, or *rain*, *is*; which, by the rapidity of pronunciation, might in time form the verbs *rains*, *thunders*, &c. The observation of their own actions, or the actions of the animals around them, would soon increase their stock of ideas, and put them upon contriving suitable expressions for them. Hence might arise such words as these: *sleep*, or *sleeping*; stand, or standing; *run*, or *running*; *bite*, or *biting*; *hurt*, or *hurting*: and by joining these to substantives, by means of the copula *is*, they might form such sentences as — *lion is sleeping*, or perhaps *lion sleep* is, *stand* is, &c.; which would soon be contracted into *lion sleeps*, *stands*, *runs*, *bites*, *hurts*, &c. Thus our little insulated family might become possessed of verbs including an attribute and an affirmation in one word.—But these are not such verbs as Dr. Beattie pronounces to be necessary in every sentence; for they are not yet limited either to time, number, or person.

"The next step would probably be a distinction between actions in their progressive and in their finished state; i. e. actions going on in their presence, and perceived by their senses; and such as were ended, and consequently only known to them by memory, by report, or by their effects: and they might perhaps apply such words as *raining*, *thundering*, *sleeping*, &c. to the former kind of actions; and such as *rained*, *thundered*, *slept*, &c. to the latter. And by joining the copula *is* to these words signifying perfect actions, in the same manner in which they had joined it before to the words signifying imperfect ones, and afterwards contracting them into single words, they might soon acquire a verb expressing a finished action and an affirmation in one word. This improvement would probably suggest to them the idea of making such further alterations in, or additions to, their verbs, as would make them significant of all the grand divisions of time.

"But still their verbs would have neither person nor number, and would probably remain in that state till the invention of pronouns. But this, requiring some degree of abstraction, would probably not happen very early; for, in their first efforts to express themselves, they would be more likely to say, "Thomas loves William and Henry," than "I love thee and him." However, in process of time, pronouns would no doubt be introduced: and they might perhaps make such alterations in their verbs, as to accommodate them to their numbers and persons, though such an accommodation does not seem absolutely necessary; for, if custom authorised it, I do not know that there would be any more inconvenience or ambiguity in saying, "I love, thou love, he love," than there is in saying, "We love, ye love, they love." Languages may therefore exist which do not vary their verbs to express either number or person. And, further, I think it possible that there may be languages so constructed as not to admit any variation in their verbs, even to express time; for if the verb only contains, in itself, an assertion and an attribute, the time of it may be fixed by adverbs and other adjuncts. I conclude, there-

fore, that a definition applicable to the verb in all languages, and in all its forms, cannot comprehend in it any thing more than what biſhop Lowth has expreſſed by ſaying, "A verb is a word ſignifying to be, to do, or to ſuffer."

"Perhaps it may be ſaid, that what I have here advanced, on the origin of verbs, is in a great meaſure fancy and conjecture. I grant it. And I further admit, that in different countries they may probably have originated in different ways, and arrived at very different degrees of perfection. All I aim to prove is, the poſſibility that languages may exiſt, the verbs of which do not poſſeſs all the properties belonging to verbs in the highly poliſhed languages of Europe; and that a general definition ſhould include nothing but what is eſſential to the verb in all poſſible caſes."

PHILOSOPHICAL PAPERS.

Mr. ANDERSON's ACCOUNT of a BITUMINOUS LAKE or PLAIN, in the Iſland of TRINIDAD.

[From the Seventy-ninth Volume of the PHILOSOPHICAL TRANSACTIONS.]

"A Moſt remarkable production of nature in the iſland of Trinidad, is a bituminous lake, or rather plain, known by the name of Tar Lake; by the French called La Bray, from the reſemblance to, and anſwering the intention of, ſhip-pitch. It lies in the leeward ſide of the iſland, about half-way from the Bocas to the ſouth end, where the mangrove ſwamps are interrupted by the ſand-banks and hills; and on a point of land which extends into the ſea about two miles, exactly oppoſite to the high mountains of Paria, on the north ſide of the Gulf.

"This cape, or head-land is about fifty feet above the level of the ſea, and is the greateſt elevation of land on this ſide of the iſland. From the ſea it appears a maſs of black vitrified rocks; but, on a cloſe examination, it is found a compoſition of bituminous ſcoriæ, vitrified ſand, and earth, cemented together; in ſome parts beds of cinders only are found. In approaching this cape, there is a ſtrong ſulphureous ſmell, ſometimes diſagreeable. This ſmell is prevalent in many parts of the ground to the diſtance of eight or ten miles from it.

"This point of land is about two miles broad, and on the eaſt and weſt ſides, from the diſtance of about half a mile from the ſea, falls with a gentle declivity to it, and is joined to the main land on the ſouth by the continuation of the mangrove ſwamps; ſo that the bituminous plain is on the higheſt part of it, and only ſeparated from the ſea by a margin of wood which ſurrounds it, and prevents a diſtant proſpect of it. Its ſituation is ſimilar to a ſavannah, and, like them, it is not ſeen till treading upon its verge. Its colour, and even ſurface preſent at firſt the aſpect of a lake of water; but I imagine it got the appellation of Lake when ſeen in the hot and dry weather, at which time its ſurface to the depth of an inch is liquid; and then from its coheſive quality it cannot be walked upon.

"It is of a circular form, and I ſuppoſe about three miles in circumference. At my firſt approach it appeared a plane, as ſmooth as glaſs, excepting ſome ſmall clumps of ſhrubs and dwarf-trees that had taken poſſeſſion of ſome ſpots of it; but when I had proceeded ſome yards on it, I found it divided into areolæ of different ſizes and ſhapes; the chaſms or diviſions anaſtomoſed through every part of it; the ſurface of the areolæ perfectly horizontal and ſmooth; the margins undulated, each undulation enlarged to the bottom till they join the oppoſite. On the ſurface the margin or firſt undulation is diſtant from the oppoſi from four to ſix feet, and

nd the ſame depth before they oaleſce; but where the angles of ıe areolæ oppoſe, the chaſms or ıamifications a:e wider and deeper. Vhen I was at it, all theſe chaſms ere full of water, the whole formıg one true horizontal plane, which endered my inveſtigation of it difficult and tedious, being neceſſitated plunge into the water a great epth in paſſing from one areola to nother. The trueſt idea that can e formed of its ſurface will be rom the areolæ and their ramificaons on the back of a turtle. Its ıore common conſiſtence and apearance is that of pit-coal, the olour rather greyer. It breaks into nall fragments, of a cellular apearance and gloſſy, with a number f minute and ſhining particles inerſperſed through its ſubſtance; it very friable, and, when liquid, is f a jet black colour. Some parts f the ſurface are covered with a iin and brittle ſcoria, a little elated.

"As to its depth, I can form no lea of it; for in no part could I nd a ſubſtratum of any other ſubance; in ſome parts I found calned earth mixed with it.

"Although I ſmelt ſulphur very rong on paſſing over many parts f it, I could diſcover no appearıce of it, or any rent or crack ırough which the ſteams might ſue; probably it was from ſome arts of the adjacent woods: for though ſulphur is the baſis of this ituminous matter, yet the ſmells e very different, and eaſily diſtinuiſhed, for its ſmell comes the eareſt to that of pitch of any thing know. I could make no impreſon on its ſurface without an axe: t the depth of a foot I found it a ttle ſofter, with an oily appearance, ı ſmall cells. A little of it held to burning candle makes a hiſſing or cracking noiſe like nitre, emitting ſmall ſparks with a vivid flame, which extinguiſhes the moment the candle is removed. A piece put in the fire will boil up a long time without ſuffering much diminution: after a long time's ſevere heat, the ſurface will burn and form a thin ſcoria, under which the reſt remains liquid. Heat ſeems not to render it fluid, or occupy a larger ſpace than when cold; from which, I imagine, there is but little alteration on it during the dry months, as the ſolar rays cannot exert their force above an inch below the ſurface. I was told by one Frenchman, that in the dry ſeaſon the whole was an uniform ſmooth maſs; and by another, that the ravins contained water fit for uſe during the year; but neither can I believe: for if, according to the firſt aſſertion, it was an homogeneous maſs, ſomething more than an external cauſe muſt affect it, to give it the preſent appearances: nor without ſome hidden cauſe can the ſecond be granted. Although the bottoms of theſe ramified channels admit not of abſorption, yet from their open expoſure, and the black ſurface of the circumjacent parts, evaporation muſt go on amazing quick, and a ſhort time of dry weather muſt ſoon empty them; nor from the ſituation and ſtructure of the place is there a poſſibility of ſupply but from the clouds. To ſhew that the progreſs of evaporation is inconceivably quick here, at the time I viſited it, there were, on an average, two-thirds of the time inceſſant torrents of rains; but from the afternoon being dry, with a gentle breeze (as is generally the caſe during the rainy ſeaſon in this iſland), there evidently was an equilibrium between the rain and the evaporation; for in the courſe of three days I

ſaw

ſaw it twice, and perceived no alteration on the height of the water, nor any outlet for it but by evaporation.

"I take this bituminous ſubſtance to be the bitumen aſphaltum Linnæi. A gentle heat renders it ductile; hence, mixed with a little greaſe or common pitch, it is much uſed for the bottoms of ſhips, and for which intention it is collected by many; and I ſhould conceive it a preſervative againſt the borer, ſo deſtructive to ſhips in this part of the world.

"Beſides this place, where it is found in this ſolid ſtate, it is found liquid in many parts of the woods; and at the diſtance of twenty miles from this about two inches thick, round holes of three or four inches diameter, and often at cracks or rents. This is conſequently liquid, and ſmells ſtronger of tar than when indurated, and adheres ſtrongly to any thing it touches; greaſe is the only thing that will diveſt the hands of it.

"The ſoil in general, for ſome diſtance round La Bray, is cinders and burnt earths; and where not ſo, it is a ſtrong argillaceous ſoil; the whole exceedingly fertile, which is always the caſe where there are any ſulphureous particles in it. Every part of the country, to the diſtance of thirty miles round, has every appearance of being formed by convulſions of nature from ſubterraneous fires. In ſeveral parts of the woods are hot ſprings; ſome I tried, with a well graduated thermometer of Fahrenheit, were 20° and 22° hotter than the atmoſphere at the time of trial. From its poſition to them, this part of the iſland has certainly experienced the effects of the volcanic eruptions, which have heaped up thoſe prodigious maſſes of mountains that terminate the province of Paria on the north; and no doubt there has been, and ſtill probably is, a communication between them. One of theſe mountains oppoſite to La Bray in Trinidad, about thirty miles diſtant, has every appearance of a volcanic mountain: however, the volcanic efforts have been very weak here, as no traces of them extend above two miles from the ſea in this part of the iſland, and the greater part of it has had its origin from a very different cauſe to that of volcanos; but they have certainly laid the foundation of it, as is evident from the high ridge of mountains which ſurrounds its windward ſide to protect it from the depredations of the ocean, and is its only barrier againſt that over-powering element, and may properly be called the ſkeleton of the iſland.

"From every examination I have made, I find the whole iſland formed of an argillaceous earth, either in its primitive ſtate, or under its different metamorphoſes. The baſes of the mountains are compoſed of ſchiſtus argillaceus, and talcum lithomargo; but the plains or lowlands remaining nearly in the ſame moiſt ſtate as at its formation, the component particles have not experienced the viciſſitudes of nature ſo much as the more elevated parts, conſequently retain more of their primitive forms and properties. As argillaceous earth is formed from the ſediment of the ocean; from the ſituation of Trinidad to the continent, its formation is eaſily accounted for, granting firſt the formation of the ridge of mountains that bound its windward ſide, and the high mountains on the continent that nearly join it: for the great influx of currents into the gulf of Paria from the coaſts of Brazil and Andaluſia muſt bring a vaſt quantity of light earthy parti-

cle

les from the mouth of the numerous large rivers which traverse hese parts of the continent; but he currents being repelled by these idges of mountains, eddies and mooth water will be produced where they meet and oppose, and herefore the earthy particles would ubside, and form banks of mud, nd by fresh accumulations added, would soon form dry land; and rom these causes it is evident such tract of country as Trinidad must be formed. But these causes still exist, and the effect from them is evident; for the island is daily growing on the leeward side, as may be seen from the mud-beds that extend a great way into the gulf, and there constantly increase. But from the great influx from the ocean at the south end of the island, and its egress to the Atlantic again, through the Bocas, a channel must ever exist between the continent and Trinidad."

Account of the CULTIVATION of LAC, by Mr. Robert Saunders, Surgeon, at Boglepoor in Bengal.

[From the same Work.]

"As lac is the produce of, and a staple article of commerce in Assam, a country bordering on and much connected with Thibet, some account of it may not be an improper supplement to the above remarks.

"Lac is, strictly speaking, neither gummy nor resinous substance, though it has some properties in common to both. Gums are soluble in water, and resins in spirits; lac admits of a very difficult union with either, without the mediation of some other agent.

"Lac is known in Europe by the different appellations of stick lac, seed lack, and shell lac. The first is the lac in pretty considerable lumps, with much of the woody parts of the branches on which it is formed adhering to it. Seed lac is only the stick lac broke into small pieces, garbled, and appearing in a granulated form. Shell lac is the purified lac, by a very simple process to be mentioned afterward.

"Many vague and unauthenticated reports concerning lac have reached the public; and though amongst the multiplicity of accounts the true history of this substance has been nearly hit on, little credit is given in Europe to any description of it hitherto published. My observations, as far as they go, are the result of what I have seen, from the lac on the tree, the progress of the insect now in my custody, and the information of a gentleman residing at Goalpara on the borders of Assam, who is perfectly conversant in the method of breeding the insect, inviting it to the tree, collecting the lac from the branches, and forming it into shell lac, in which state much of it is received from Assam, and exported to Europe for various great and useful purposes. The tree on which this fly most commonly generates is known in Bengal by the name of the biher-tree, and is a species of the rhamnus. The fly is nourished by the tree, and there deposits its eggs which nature has provided it with the means of defending from external injury by a collection of this lac, evidently serving the twofold purpose of a nidus and covering to the ovum

ovum and insect in its first stage, and food for the maggot in its more advanced state. The lac is formed into complete cells, finished with as much regularity and art as a honey-comb, but differently arranged. The flies are invited to deposit their eggs on the branches of the tree, by besmearing them with some of the fresh lac steeped in water, which attracts the fly, and gives a better and larger crop.

"The lac is collected twice a year, in the months of February and August.

"I have examined the egg of the fly with a very good microscope: it is of a very pure red, perfectly transparent, except in the centre, where there were evident marks of the embryo forming, and opaque ramifications passing off from the body of it. The egg is perfectly oval, and about the size of an ant's egg. The maggot is about the one-eight of an inch long, formed of many rings (ten or twelve) with a small red head; when seen with a microscope, the parts of the head were easily distinguished, with six small specks on the breasts, somewhat projecting, which seemed to be the incipient formation of the feet. This maggot is now in my custody, in the form of a nymph or chrysalis, its annular coat forming a strong covering, from which it should issue forth a fly. I have never seen the fly, and cannot therefore describe it more fully, or determine its genus and species. I am promised a drawing of the insect in its different stages, and shall be able soon to add to a botannical description of the plant a drawing of the branch, with the different parts of fructification and lac on it. The gentleman to whom I owe part of my information terms the lac the excrement of the insect. On a more minute investigation, however, we may not find it more so than the wax or honey of the bee, or silk of the silk-worm. Nature has provided most insects with the means of secreting a substance which generally answers the twofold purpose of defending the embryo, and supplying nourishment to the insect from the time of its animation till able to wander abroad in quest of food. The fresh lac contains within its cells a liquid, sweetish to the taste, and of a fine red colour, miscible in water. The natives of Assam use it as a dye, and cotton dipped in this liquid makes afterwards a very good red ink.

"The simple operation of purifying lac is practised as follows. It is broken into small pieces, and picked from the branches and sticks, when it is put into a sort of canvas bag of about four feet long, and not above six inches in circumference. Two of these bags are in constant use, and each of them held by two men. The bag is placed over a fire, and frequently turned till the lac is liquid enough to pass through its pores, when it is taken off the fire, and squeezed by two men in different directions, dragging it along the convex part of a plantain-tree prepared for the purpose; while this is doing, the other bag is heating, to be treated in the same way. The mucilaginous and smooth surface of the plantain-tree seems peculiarly well adapted for preventing the adhesion of the heated lac, and giving it the form which enhances its value so much. The degree of pressure on the plantain-tree regulates the thickness of the shell, and the quality of the bag determines its fineness and transparency. They have learned of late, that the lac which is thicker in the shell than it used to be, is most prized in Europe.

Assam

Aſſam furniſhes us with the greateſt quantity of lac in uſe; and it may not be generally known, that the tree on which they produce the beſt and largeſt quantity of lac is not uncommon in Bengal, and might be employed in propagating the fly, and cultivating the lac, to great advantage. The ſmall quantity of lac collected in theſe provinces affords a precarious and uncertain crop, becauſe not attended to. Some attention at particular ſeaſons is neceſſary to invite the fly to the tree; and collecting the whole of the lac with too great an avidity, where the inſect is not very generally to be met with, may annihilate the breed.

"The beſt method of cultivating the tree, and preſerving the inſect, being properly underſtood in Bengal, would ſecure to the Coſs poſſeſſions the benefit ariſing from the ſale of a lucrative article, in great demand and of extenſive uſe."

Dr. GRAY's INFERENCES deducible from an Attention to the EXTERNAL CHARACTERS of SERPENTS.

[From the ſame Work.]

I Shall make no further remarks on the external characters of ſerpents; the principal inferences to be deduced from thoſe I have already made, are the following.

"1ſt, That a broad head, covered with ſmall ſcales, though it be not a certain criterion of venomous ſerpents, is, with ſome few exceptions, a general character of them.

"2dly, That a tail under one-fifth of the whole length, is alſo a general character of venomous ſerpents; but, ſince many of thoſe which are not venomous have tails as ſhort, little dependance can be placed upon that circumſtance alone. On the other hand, a tail exceeding that proportion, is a pretty certain mark that the ſpecies, to which it belongs, is not venomous.

"3dly, That a thin and acute tail is by no means to be conſidered as peculiar to venomous ſerpents; though a thick and obtuſe one is only to be found among thoſe which are not venomous.

"4thly, That carinated ſcales are, in ſome meaſure, characteriſtic of venomous ſerpents, ſince in them they are more common than ſmooth ones, in the proportion of nearly 4 to 1; whereas, ſmooth ſcales are, in thoſe ſerpents which are not venomous, more common, in the proportion of nearly 3 to 1.

"Upon the whole therefore it appears, that though a pretty certain conjecture may, in many inſtances, be made, from the external characters; yet, in order to determine, with certainty, whether a ſerpent be venomous or not, it becomes neceſſary to have recourſe to ſome certain diagnoſtic. This can only be ſought for in the mouth; I ſhall therefore next conſider, how the fangs, with which the mouths of venomous ſerpents are furniſhed, are to be diſtguiſhed from common teeth.

"To thoſe who form their ideas of the fangs of venomous ſerpents, from thoſe of the rattle-ſnake, or even from thoſe of the Engliſh viper, it will appear ſtrange, that there ſhould be any difficulty in diſtinguiſh-

distinguishing those weapons from common teeth; and indeed the distinction would really be very easy, were all venomous serpents furnished with fangs as large as those of the fore-mentioned species. But the fact is, that in many species the fangs are full as small as common teeth, and consequently cannot, by their size, be known from them; this is the case with the coluber laticaudatus, lacteus, and several others. I cannot, however, better demonstrate that the distinction, between the venomous fangs and common teeth, is not very obvious, than by shewing how very vague, and erroneous Linnæus's ideas about them were; nor can I better prove the want of information on this subject than by observing that, erroneous as the ideas of Linnæus were, no one, that I know of, has yet attempted to furnish more correct ones.

"Linnæus thought the fangs might be distinguished by their mobility; this, at least, may be fairly inferred, from his never mentioning them in the Museum Regis, without adding the epithet mobilia, except in one instance (the coluber aulicus); and, in that very instance, the want of mobility in the supposed fangs appears evidently to raise doubts in his mind, whether they are really fangs or not. His words are, "Dentes, sive tela, duo, rigida, parva, non mobilia." These doubts, respecting the above mentioned species, I am not able to remove, as I am not sure that I have ever seen it. But with regard to mobility, considered in general as a character of venomous fangs, I must assert, not only that I have never found it so, but also, that I have never been able to discover in them any thing which I thought could properly be called mobility. I have, indeed, sometimes found some of them loose in their sockets; but then I have found others, in the same specimen, quite fixed. The same thing was observed both by Dr. Nicholls, and by the Abbé Fontana, in the common viper, even during life. The loose fangs may be such as have not yet been firmly fixed in their socket, or they may have been loosened by some accident: for I suspect that the fangs may be at any time loosened, and even displaced, by a small degree of violence; and that, perhaps, may be one reason why there is always a certain number of small fangs, near the base of the full grown ones, ready to enlarge and take their place, if they should be, by any accident, torn out.

"Linnæus seems also to have thought that the fangs might be known by their situation. In the introduction to the class amphibia in the Systema Naturæ, he says they are, "Dentibus simillima sed extra maxillam superiorem collocata;" and in the description of the Crotalus Dryinas, in the Amœnitates Academicæ, he says, "Dentes ejus duo canini uti in reliquis venenatis serpentibus non in maxillis hærent, iis enim vulnerando, non autem ictus infligendo utitur."

"These two quotations shew, that Linnæus thought the situation of the fangs different from that of the common teeth; the last also shews that he thought their mode of action influenced by it. What difference in situation may be found by accurate dissection, it is foreign from my present purpose to enquire; I am, however, very certain that common examination will not discover any difference, in that respect, between the fangs of venemous serpents and the teeth of others.

"But

" But the moſt ſingular opinion of Linnæus, reſpecting the venomous fangs, was, that they were ſometimes fixed in the baſe of the jaw. Of this he has given two inſtances in the Muſeum Regis. One in the deſcription of the coluber severus, of which he ſays, " Haſtæ nobiles ſolitariæ verſus baſin maxillarum interius adhærent." The other in that of the coluber ſtolatus. His words there are, " Tela nobilia ad baſin maxillarum affixa, ut vix vulnerare valeat hoſtes, ſolum ſibos, veneno inficere."

" Linnæus's opinion reſpecting the uſe of the fangs, in the laſt mentioned ſpecies, appears to me not very clearly expreſſed. But I have quoted both deſcriptions, merely to ſhew that Linnæus thought the fangs were ſometimes placed in the baſe of the jaw; an idea for which I have never been able to diſcover any foundation. The firſt of the two ſpecies in queſtion I have never ſeen; of the ſtolatus I have examined ſeveral ſpecimens, and am convinced it is not venomous.

" I ſhall not dwell any longer on the falſe notions which have been entertained, reſpecting the fangs of venomous ſerpents, but ſhall proceed to ſhew how, in my opinion, they may be moſt eaſily and moſt certainly, diſtinguiſhed from common teeth.

" With reſpect to their ſize, I have already obſerved that it is very various, conſequently no certain judgment can, in all caſes, be made from that circumſtance. In ſome ſpecies they are ſo large, that their ſize alone ſufficiently diſtinguiſhes them from common teeth; but in others they are ſo ſmall, that it is very difficult to diſcover them.

" The ſize of the common teeth alſo varies very much, in different ſpecies. In the Coluber myſterinans they are remarkably large, eſpecially thoſe which are ſituated near the apex of the upper jaw; which circumſtance probably helped to lead Linnæus into the erroneous opinion he entertained, that this ſerpent was venomous. But in many ſpecies the teeth are ſo ſmall, that it is impoſſible to diſcover, merely by looking into the mouth, that the animal has any. Yet in that caſe they may be very eaſily detected, by drawing a pin (or any other hard ſubſtance) with a moderate degree of preſſure, along the edge of the jaw, from the apex to the angle of the mouth, when they will be felt to grate againſt the pin, like the teeth of a ſaw.

" Although the ſize of the venomous fangs is very various, their ſituation is, I believe, always the ſame; namely, in the anterior and exterior part of the upper jaw, which ſituation I conſider as the only one, in which venomous fangs are ever found. But as in thoſe ſerpents which are not venomous, common teeth are found in that part of the jaw, it is plain that we cannot, by ſituation alone, diſtinguiſh one from the other. They may however, be diſtinguiſhed with great eaſe, and I believe with great certainty, by the following ſimple operation. When it is diſcovered that there is ſomething like teeth in the forementioned part of the upper jaw, let a pin be drawn, in the manner already deſcribed, from that part of the jaw to the angle of the mouth (which operation may, for greater certainty, be tried on each ſide). If no more teeth are felt in that line, it may I believe be certainly concluded, that thoſe firſt diſcovered are what I have diſtinguiſhed by the name of fangs, and conſequently, that the ſerpent is a venomous one. If, on the contrary, the teeth firſt diſcovered are found not to ſtand alone, but to be only a part of a complete row, it may as certainly

tainly be concluded, that the ſerpent is not venomous.

" In the upper jaw, both of venomous ſerpents and others, beſides the teeth already ſpoken of, there are two interior rows; conſequently, the diſtinction I have endeavoured to eſtabliſh might be expreſſed in other words, by ſaying, that all venomous ſerpents have only two rows of teeth, in the upper jaw, and all others have four. I think it better, however, to leave the interior rows out of the queſtion, as, in many ſpecies, the teeth of which they are compoſed are ſo ſmall, as to make it very difficult to diſcover them. Indeed, in two ſpecies of anguis, I can hardly be ſure that I have diſcovered them; but as, in every other ſpecies, I have never failed to do ſo, I preſume I may, with very little riſk of error, aſſert, that all ſerpents whatever are furniſhed with them; and that thoſe only, which are not venomous, have the exterior rows.

" What I have ſaid ſufficiently ſhews that Linnæus's ideas reſpecting venomous ſerpents, were ſuch as did not permit him to ſeparate them from the others; if the method I have propoſed ſhall be found to render the diſtinction of them ſufficiently clear and eaſy, it naturally follows, that they ſhould be made generically diſtinct. Some other reforms might alſo be made in Linnæus's claſs of amphibia, the conſideration of which I do not mean, at preſent, to enter further into. But, before I conclude, I think it neceſſary to notice an inaccuracy of Linnæus, of a different kind from thoſe I have already pointed out.

" In the preface to the Muſeum Regis, and in the Introduction to the claſs amphibia, in the Syſtema Naturæ, Linnæus ſays, that the proportion of venomous ſerpents to others, is one in ten; yet, in the Syſtema Naturæ, of which the ſum total in ſpecies is one hundred and thirty-one, he has marked twenty-three as venomous, which is ſomewhat more than one in ſix. How he came to be ſo much at variance with himſelf, I know not; but the laſt mentioned proportion ſeems to me to be not far from the truth; as I find that I have examined one hundred and fifty-four ſpecies of ſerpents, of which number twenty-ſix appear to be venomous.

" I have already mentioned, that the coluber ſtolatus and the mycterizans, though marked by Linnæus as venomous ſerpents, certainly are not ſo; and that I ſuſpect the ſame may be ſaid of the leberis, and dipſas. I have alſo obſerved, that the boa contortrix, coluber ceraſtes, and laticaudatus, none of which are marked in the Syſtema Naturæ, are all of them venomous; to theſe laſt may be added the coluber fulvus.

" If Linnæus's ſpecies were all accurately examined, I have no doubt but more errors, of both kinds, would be found; for it muſt be obſerved, that though I have examined a greater number of ſpecies than Linnæus, not above half that number are of thoſe deſcribed by him; conſequently there remains more than one-third of his ſpecies which I have never ſeen. The number I have examined, however, ſeems to me ſufficiently great to warrant the inferences I have drawn from that examination. That ſome exceptions to them might be found, by the examination of a greater number, is very poſſible; but, if theſe obſervations ſhall tend to rectify the falſe notions which have been entertained reſpecting venomous ſerpents, and to render the diſtinction between them and others more clear, I truſt they will be thought not totally uſeleſs."

EXPE-

XPERIMENTS on the CONGELATION of QUICKSILVER in England, by Mr. RICHARD WALKER, in a Letter to HENRY CAVENDISH, Esq. F. R. S.

[From the ſame Work.]

I Now beg leave to trouble you with the particulars of my exriments relative to the congelaon of mercury; to which I ſhall ld an account of a few experients, relating to the production artificial cold, made ſince my laſt per was written.

" Exp. 1. On December 28th ſt, a favourable opportunity ofred of beginning ſome experiments the congelation of mercury, hich I was deſirous of effecting mpletely; how far I have ſucceeded will appear in the ſequel.

" For this purpoſe I prepared a ixture of diluted vitriolic acid (reuced by water till its ſpecific gravity was to that of water as 1,5596 1) and ſtrong fuming nitrous id, of each equal parts. I preerred this mixture of acid becauſe has been found by Mr. M'Nab, Hudſon's Bay, to be capable of oducing much greater cold, when e temperature of the materials at ixing is very low, than the nitrous id alone; the former ſinking a irit thermometer to —54°½, the tter never lower than—46°.

" The glaſs tube of a mercurial ermometer, with its bulb half led with mercury, was provided, is occurring to me as a convenient ethod of aſcertaining when the ercury was congealed; for if, afr being ſubjected to the cold of a igorific mixture, the thermometer aſs ſhould be taken out and inrted, and the mercury found to main completely ſuſpended in that alf of the bulb now uppermoſt, o doubt can remain of the ſucceſs of the experiment; an hydrometer, with its lower bulb half an inch in diameter, and three-fourths full of mercury, was likewiſe provided, in caſe any accident ſhould happen to the other.

" It may be proper to premiſe here, that in all experiments of this kind I remove each veſſel, when the liquor it contains is ſufficiently cooled, out of the mixture in which it is immerſed for that purpoſe, immediately previous to adding the ſnow or ſalts with intention to generate a ſtill further increaſe of cold; and likewiſe prefer adding the ſnow or powdered ſalts to the liquor, inſtead of pouring the liquor upon theſe: it is neceſſary alſo to ſtir about the ſnow or ſalts, whilſt cooling in a frigorific mixture, from time to time, otherwiſe it will freeze into a hard maſs, and fruſtrate the experiment.

" A half-pint glaſs tumbler, containing two ounces and a half of the above-mentioned diluted mixture of acids, being immerſed in mixtures of nitrous acid and ſnow, untill the liquor it contained was cooled to—30°, was removed out of the mixture and placed upon a table; ſnow, likewiſe previouſly cooled in a frigorific mixture to—15°, was added by degrees to the liquor in the tumbler, and the mixture kept ſtirring, until a mercurial thermometer ſunk to—60°, where it remained ſtationary; the hydrometer was then immerſed in the mixture (the thermometer glaſs having been broken in the courſe of the experiment), and ſtirred about in it for a ſhort time,

and on taking the hydrometer out, and gently ſhaking it, I perceived the mercury had already acquired the conſiſtence of an amalgam, and after immerſing it again for a few minutes, and then taking out and inverting it, I was gratified for the firſt time with the ſight of mercury in a ſtate of perfect congelation. I applied my hand to the inverted glaſs bulb; this ſoon looſened the ſolid mercury, which, on ſhaking the hydrometer, was diſtinctly heard to knock with force againſt the glaſs; it was then immerſed a ſecond time, and when taken out was found adhering to the glaſs as before. I now inverted the glaſs again, and kept it in that ſituation until the whole of the mercury melted, and dropped down globule after globule into the ſtem of the hydrometer. The interval of time from taking the mercury out of the frigorific mixture in a ſolid ſtate, the laſt time, to its perfect liquefaction, was not noticed; but, upon recollection immediately afterwards, was ſuppoſed to be not leſs than three or four minutes. In a ſucceeding experiment this circumſtance was attended to, and the frozen mercury, weighing ſeven ſcruples, was not entirely melted under ſeven minutes, the temperature of the air $+30^{\circ}$.

"The experiment which follows I conſider the moſt extraordinary, becauſe it proves beyond a doubt, that mercury may be frozen not only here in ſummer, but even in the hotteſt climate, at any ſeaſon of the year, by a combination of frigorific mixtures, in the way deſcribed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, vol. lxxvii. p. 285. in which attempt to freeze mercury, made April 20, 1787, the temperature of the air and materials being $+45^{\circ}$, I certainly reached (without the aſ-

ſiſtance of ſnow or ice) the point mercurial congelation; but had the no ſatisfactory proof that any pa of the mercury was abſolutely co gealed.

"Exp. 2. On December 30. thr ounces of a mixture compoſed ſtrong fuming nitrous acid tw parts, and ſtrong vitriolic acid a water each one part, were cooled a half pint tumbler immerſed in frigorific mixture, till the temper ture of the diluted mixture of aci was reduced to—30°. The tumbl was then removed out of the mi ture, and vitriolated natron (Gla ber's ſalt) in very fine powder, pr viouſly cooled to—14° by a frig rific mixture, added by degrees the liquor in the tumbler, ſtirring together until the mercury in t thermometer ſunk to—34°. T hydrometer uſed in the former e periment, with its lower bulb thre fourths full of mercury, was no immerſed and ſtirred about in t mixture for a few minutes, wh on taking it out, and inverting I had the ſatisfaction to find t ſame proof of the mercury bei frozen as in the former inſtance. was immediately ſhewn to the ge tlemen preſent, who expreſſed lik wiſe their entire ſatisfaction. Nea ly four ounces of the powdered ſa was added; but, I believe, ſom was added after the greateſt effe was produced. I had no nitrat ammonia by me, otherwiſe I ſhou have uſed upon this occaſion, i ſtead of vitriolated natron alone, mixture of theſe two ſalts in powde in the proportion of ſeven parts the former to eight of the latte The temperature of the room which theſe experiments were ma was $+30^{\circ}$ each time, and the me cury taken from a jar containi ſeveral pounds.

"Exp. 3. By an experiment ma purpoſe

purposely on January 10. last, at which Dr. Bourne was present, I have found that mercury may be congealed tolerably hard, by adding fresh fallen snow, at the temperature of +32, to strong fuming nitrous acid, previously cooled to between —25° and —30°, which may be very easily and quickly effected by immersing the vessel containing the acid in a mixture of snow and nitrous acid.

"I use the fuming nitrous acid upon all occasions, because that does not require to be diluted, cold being immediately produced on the smallest addition of snow.

"Exp. 4. On January 12, at Dr. Thomson's request, I repeated the experiment of freezing mercury, at the Anatomy school in Christ church, in the presence of the honourable Mr. Wennan, the rev. Dr. Hoare, Dr. Sibthorp, junior, Dr. Thomson, the rev. Mr. Jackson of Christ church, and Mr. Wood of this place, a gentleman well known for his ingenuity in mechanics.

"For this purpose were provided a spirit thermometer graduated very low, and a mercurial thermometer graduated to—76°, two thermometer glasses, with bulbs very near, if not quite, an inch in diameter each, one filled with mercury nearly to the orifice of the tube, which was left open, the other with its bulb half filled, and an hydrometer with its lower bulb (considerably less than either of the others) likewise half filled with mercury; the temperature of the room at this time +28°.

"A pan, containing nine ounces of the mixture of acids prepared as in the first experiment, was placed in a larger pan, containing nitrous acid, and this, in a frigorific mixture of nitrous acid and snow, contained in another pan much larger. When the nitrous acid in the second pan was cooled by this mixture to —18°, and the mixed acids in the smallest pan nearly as much, snow at somewhat between + 20° and + 25°, the temperature of the open air at that time, was added to the nitrous acid in the second pan, until the spirit thermometer sunk to near —43°; then the thermometer, with its bulb half filled, was immersed a sufficient time, and when taken out, the mercury in it was found congealed, and adhering to the glass. The pan containing the mixed acids, and which had been removed whilst the snow was added to make the second mixture, was now replaced in it, in order to be cooled; and the mixture of acids was reduced to the temperature of—34°, snow previously cooled to—18° was added, keeping the mixture stirred until the mercurial thermometer sunk to —60°; its temperature by the spirit thermometer was then found to be —51°.

"The three glasses containing the mercury to be frozen were now immersed in this mixture, and having been moved about in it for a considerable time, during which the spirit thermometer rose scarcely one degree, were then severally taken out and examined.

"As the examination of the frozen mercury was more immediately under the inspection of Dr. Thomson, I shall transcribe here that gentleman's account of the phænomena.

"When the freezing mixture was supposed to have produced its effect, the bulb which was completely filled was taken out, and broken on a flat stone by a moderate stroke or two with an iron hammer. This bulb was eleven or twelve lines in diameter.

"The solid mercury was separat-

ed into several sharp and brilliant fragments, some of which bore handling for a short time before they returned to a fluid form. One mass, larger than the rest, consisting of nearly one-third of the whole ball, afforded the beautiful appearance of flat plates, converging towards a center. Each of these plates was about a line in breadth at the external surface of the ball, becoming narrower as it shot inwards. These facets lay in very different planes, as is common in the fracture of any crystallized ball, whether of a brittle metal or of the earths, as in balls of calcareous stalactite. The solid brittle mercury in the present instance bore a very exact resemblance, both in colour and plated structure, to sulphurated antimony, and especially to the radiated specimens from Auvergne, before they are at all tarnished.

"Instead of a solid center to this ball, it seemed as if there had been a central cavity, of about two lines in diameter, a considerable portion of which was evident in the fragment just described, at that part to which the radii converged. It is indeed possible, that this may have been merely the receptacle of some part of the mercury remaining fluid at the center. The hollow within was shining, but its edges were neither soft nor mouldering; on the contrary, they were sharp and well defined: nor was the brilliancy of the radii attributable to any exudation of mercury as from an amalgam.

"In the two smaller bulbs, which were only half filled, the mercury preserved its usual lustre on the surface in contact with the glass, as well as on that surface which it had acquired in becoming solid. The latter was occupied by a conical depression, the gradations of which were marked by concentric lines.

"One of these hemispheres was struck with a hammer, as in the former instance, but was rather flattened and crushed than broken. The other, on being divided with a sharp chissel, shewed a metallic splendour on its cut surface, but not equalling the polish of a globule of fluid mercury.

"Thirteen ounces of snow in the whole were found to have been added to the mixed acids; but some was added to lower its temperature after the glasses containing the mercury were taken out, and the spirit thermometer had risen a few degrees.

"This was a day remarkably favourable for such an experiment. My thermometer exposed to the open air stood, at three quarters past eight this morning, at - 6°, which is a very extraordinary degree of cold here; but this experiment was not begun till noon.

"Exp. 5. On January 14, I froze mercury at the Anatomy school again, in the presence of the rev. the dean of Christ church, the rev. Dr. Hornsby, and Dr. Thomson.

"Four ounces now of the mixture of acids, prepared as in the first experiment, were cooled in a tumbler to—20°, which required somewhat more than an equal weight of snow, cooled nearly to the same temperature, to produce the greatest effect. This was somewhat less than in the last experiment, the spirit thermometer sinking no lower than—46°, owing chiefly to the weather having becoming much warmer, the temperature of the open air being now + 36°. The mercurial thermometer immersed in this mixture sunk to—57, where it became stationary; then two

thermo-

thermometer glaſſes, one half filled with mercury, and the other filled to a conſiderable height up the tube, after being immerſed ſome time, were examined. Upon breaking the ſhell of glaſs from the former of theſe, the mercury was found in a perfectly ſolid ſtate; but its upper ſurface, which was highly poliſhed, and of the colour of liquid mercury, inſtead of being only ſlightly depreſſed, as had been ſeen in every other inſtance which afforded an opportunity for inſpection, now formed a perfectly inverted hollow cone. This great depreſſion, as well as the concentric circles mentioned in a former inſtance, I ſuppoſe, might be owing to a rotatory motion accidentally given to it whilſt congealing. The ſolid mercury was beaten out, but having been ſuffered to lie ſome time on the table for inſpection, very quickly melted into liquid globules. The flexibility of ſolid mercury was clearly to be obſerved in this beautiful ſpecimen; for the external ſurface, particularly the upper thin rim of the concave part, was evidently bent by the firſt gentle ſtroke of the hammer. The globe of mercury in the other glaſs, which was very ſmall, exhibited nearly the ſame phænomena, as in the inſtances before mentioned.

"It happened in theſe experiments of mine, contrary to what has generally occurred to others, that the mercury never ſunk lower than —60°, ſeldom ſo low, in the thermometer, and but little below the point of mercurial congelation in the tubes of the thermometer glaſſes filled nearly up to the orifice, with a view to ſhew the contraction of mercury in becoming ſolid by its great deſcent in the tube. On reflecting on this circumſtance afterwards, it occurred to me, that the further deſcent of the mercury in theſe experiments was prevented not ſolely by the mercury freezing in the tube, the cauſe commonly aſſigned, but rather by the quick formation of a ſpherical ſhell of ſolid mercury within the bulb, by the ſudden generation of cold

"Dr. Beddoes expreſſing a deſire to exhibit ſolid mercury at his lecture before his claſs, I undertook to freeze ſome at the Laboratory on March 12th laſt, and now reſolved to ſatisfy myſelf reſpecting the cauſe which prevented the lower deſcent of the mercury in my former experiments. In this, as well as the former, the mercury in a thermometer graduated to —60°, and likewiſe in a thermometer glaſs, filled nearly to the orifice which lengthened its ſcale to near —250°, ſunk only a few degrees below the point of mercurial congelation, and then remained ſtationary. After waiting ſometime, I took the thermometer out of the mixture, and obſerved the bulb apparently full, and the ſhort thread of mercury above unbroken. I now embraced the lower part of the tube with my hand a few ſeconds, reſting it upon the upper part of the bulb; and upon taking it away, I found that the whole of the mercury had ſubſided into the bulb, which it did not now quite fill, a ſmall ſpace at the top of the bulb remaining empty. I then took out the thermometer glaſs, and applied my hand to the tube; but the mercury remained ſtationary until I ſunk my hand ſo as to communicate heat to that part of the bulb which is immediately connected with the tube, when the thread of mercury dropped entirely into the bulb. It was now immerſed again for a ſhort time, then taken out, and the ſhell of glaſs beaten off, which expoſed a globe of ſolid mercury, nearly an inch in diameter. This

bore ſeveral very ſmart ſtrokes with a hammer before it began to liquify, but was not perfectly malleable.

" In the courſe of theſe experiments, ſeveral fragments of the ſolid mercury were thrown into mercury in its ordinary liquid ſtate, and were found to ſink with conſiderable celerity.

" In continuing my reſearches reſpecting the means of producing artificial cold, I have found that phoſphorated natron produces rather more cold by ſolution in the diluted nitrous acid than the vitriolated natron.

" At the temperature of +50°, four parts of the diluted nitrous acid (prepared by mixing ſtrong nitrous acid with half its weight of water) required eight parts of that neutral ſalt in fine power to be added, in order to cauſe the thermometer to ſink to — 6°; and again, by the addition of five parts of nitrated ammonia in fine powder, the thermometer ſunk ſo low as — 16°, in the whole ſixty-ſix degrees.

" A mixture of this kind made the thermometer ſink from 80° (the temperature of the materials before mixing) to 0°.

" I was directed to the trial of this ſalt, by the like remarkable ſenſation of coldneſs without pungency, which, with its other ſimilar properties to ice, firſt induced me, whilſt purſuing the ſubject of cold, to try the effect of diſſolving the vitriolated natron in the mineral acids.

" Equal quantities, by weight, of phoſphorated natron and vitriolated natron, were evaporated ſeparately over a gentle fire, until each was reduced to a perfectly dry powder. I then weighed them, and found the reſiduum of the phoſphorated natron ſomewhat lighter than that of the vitriolated natron; from whence it is probable the former contains the greateſt quantity of water of cryſtallization.

" I have found, that each of the neutral ſalts which produce any remarkable degree of cold by ſolution in the mineral acids, viz. phoſphorated natron, vitriolated natron, and vitriolated magneſia, loſe this property entirely, when deprived by any means of their water of cryſtallization.

" A ſhort time after I had firſt ſucceeded in freezing water in ſummer, by one mixture compoſed of three different ſalts in water (having been induced to try the effect of ſuch a method, from the conſideration that water, already ſaturated with one kind of ſalt, will diſſolve a portion of another, and after that a third, or even more), I met with the account of an experiment made by M. Homberg, related in one of the earlier volumes of the Philoſophical Tranſactions, in which it is ſaid he produced an extraordinary degree of cold, by pouring a pint and a half of diſtilled vinegar upon two pounds of a powder compoſed of equal parts of crude ſal ammoniac and corroſive ſublimate, and ſhaking them well together. I immediately (July 30, 1786) prepared a mixture of this kind in ſmaller quantity, but found it produced only thirty-two degrees of cold, the temperature of the air and materials before mixing being 63°; which is no more than I have found may be effected by a ſolution in water of crude ſal ammoniac alone, previouſly dried and powdered.

" By a trial made with great accuracy, I find, that even the mixture compoſed of diluted vitriolic acid and vitriolated natron is adequate to any uſeful purpoſe that may be required in the hotteſt country; for, by adding eleven parts of

of the ſalt in fine powder to eight parts of the vitriolic acid diluted with an equal weight of water, the thermometer ſunk from 80°, the mean temperature of the hotteſt climate, and to which theſe materials were purpoſely heated before mixing, to rather below 20°.

"Vitriolated natron, added to the marine acid undiluted, produces very nearly as great a degree of cold as when mixed with the diluted nitrous acid. At the temperature of 50°, two parts of the acid, require three parts of the ſalt in fine powder, which will ſink the thermometer to 0°; and if three parts of a mixed powder, containing equal parts of muriated ammonia and nitrated kali, be added afterwards, the cold of the mixture will be increaſed a few degrees more.

"The frigorific mixture above deſcribed, compoſed of phoſphorated natron and nitrated ammonia diſſolved in the diluted nitrous acid, being the moſt powerful, it will probably be found moſt convenient for freezing mercury, when ſnow is not to be procured. The materials for this purpoſe may be previouſly cooled in mixtures made of marine acid with vitriolated natron, muriated ammonia, and nitrated kali, in the proportions mentioned above, this being much cheaper than thoſe made with diluted nitrous acid, and very nearly equal in effect.

"In my laſt paper I mentioned a freezing mixture, made by diſſolving a powder compoſed of equal parts of muriated ammonia and nitrated kali in water, and therein directed ſix parts of the mixed powder to be added to eight parts of water; but I have found ſince, that the beſt proportions are, five parts of the former to eight of the latter, by which I have ſunk the thermometer from 50° to 11°.

"Having now proſecuted my ſubject relative to mixtures for generating artificial cold without the uſe of ice, from a poſſible method propoſed by Dr. Watſon (Eſſays, vol. iii. p. 139.), for freezing water in ſummer in this climate, and carried it on to a certain method of freezing, not only water, but even mercury, in the hotteſt climate, I now intend to take my leave of it."

OBSERVATIONS on the ANIMAL and VEGETABLE POISONS of AFRICA.

[From Lieut. PATERSON's Narrative of Four Journies into the Country of the HOTTENTOTS.]

"AS the ſubject of poiſons is one of the moſt intereſting branches of natural hiſtory, I am induced to add to the preceding pages a few facts whcih came under my own obſervation while I reſided in Africa and the Eaſt Indies, where it is well known that both the animal and vegetable kingdoms abound with a variety of productions unfriendly to the human frame.

"The vegetable poiſons of Africa have been already noticed; but I have been leſs copious in the remarks on the poiſonous ſnakes of that country. To theſe, therefore, I ſhall firſt and principally call the attention of the reader; and being but little converſant in zoology, I ſhall, in my deſcription, retain the names by which they are diſtinguiſhed in their native regions.

"The horned ſnake, is the moſt poiſonous of theſe reptiles: it is of a greyiſh colour, and about eighteen inches long: its head, which is very flat, is large in proportion to the ſize of the body, with ſmall ſcales, which the inhabitants call horns, riſing over its eyes.

"This ſerpent, ſo truly formidable from the mortal nature of its bite, particularly abounds in the country of the Boſhmen and Nimiqua Hottentots, who uſe its poiſon in preference to that of all others, for poiſoning their arrows. The Boſhmen, indeed, who have no cattle of their own, and depend entirely on their bows for ſubſiſtence, ſeem to have been furniſhed by nature with this poiſon as their only defence againſt their numerous enemies. Impelled by hunger, they often quit the mountains and plunder the Dutch peaſants of their cattle; and were it not for theſe poiſonous weapons they would be unable to withſtand or eſcape from the parties which in theſe caſes are ſent againſt them; but thus armed, ſeveral of the Dutch have been killed, and many have barely eſcaped with life from their wounds.

"The uſual mode of preparing this poiſon, is by bruiſing the whole ſnake till it becomes of the conſiſtence of a gum: a ſmall quantity of this ſubſtance is then tied on the point of the arrow with ſmall ſinews: two or more barbs are formed in the arrow to prevent its quitting the fleſh.

"This poiſon is ſometimes mixed with others, to form a preparation called rot poiſon, which, as I was informed by a peaſant of the country, produces a mortification without much pain. The wife of a Dutch peaſant travelling to the Cape, was attacked in the night by a party of Boſhmen, who came to ſteal her cattle; ſhe received a wound from an arrow on her ſhoulder; and ſo rapid was the effect of the poiſon, that before ſhe reached the Cape, her breaſts came off, and a cure was impoſſible. This and many other inſtances have been related to me by the country people, I ſhall not attempt to vouch for the truth of them; but they are generally believed at the Cape. Many Hottentots die of the bite of poiſonous ſerpents; but I have ſeen ſeveral who had recovered; though, from what I could learn, they had no mode of cure but the actual cautery.

"The kouſe band or garter-ſnake, is another of the poiſonous reptiles of that country: It is particularly dangerous to travellers, as it reſembles the ſoil ſo much in colour, that it is not readily perceived. The kouſe band is ſmall, and ſeldom exceeds eighteen inches in length. I imagine it to be the covra Manilla of the Eaſt Indies. This tribe is ſaid to occaſion almoſt inſtant death. But as all ſnakes loſe a conſiderable portion of their poiſonous quality by repeating their bite, there may be times when the poiſon is not ſo ſtrong, or ſo mortal. I had an opportunity of ſeeing a farmer at the hot baths near the Cape, who had been bitten by a kouſe band in the foot. For ſome time after the circumſtance happened, he found great benefit from bathing the wounded part with cold water, mixed with a large quantity of ſalt. When I ſaw him he had been lame for two years. Whenever he took much exerciſe it occaſioned a ſwelling in the leg, to which the warm bath afforded a temporary relief.

"The yellow ſnake which differs only in colour from the covra capella, or hooded ſnake of India,

s frequently found here. Though xtremely poiſonous, their ſize and ɔright yellow colour renders it eaſy o avoid them. They are from our to eight feet in length. The ellow ſnake is moſtly found in rat- oles. After eating theſe animals vhich form the chief part of its ood, it takes poſſeſſion of their oles: this renders it dangerous for ravellers to lie down in any place vhere there are traces of this deſ- ructive reptile.

" The Hottentots procure the oiſon of this ſnake by diſſecting the ag from its mouth, and dipping inews, which they afterwards tie n the points of their arrows, in the iquid it contains.

" The puff adder, which has ts name from blowing itſelf up to ear a foot in circumference, is of greyiſh colour, and about three eet and a half in length: it is con- iderably thicker than any I ever aw in that country: its head is arge and flat; the poiſon-teeth bout an inch long, and hooked. The puff adder is extremely dan- gerous to cattle. In one of my ex- curſions in the country, a horſe of mine was bit by one of them in the mouth, while grazing, and ſurvived the wound but two days.

" The ſpring adder is a very dangerous, but uncommon ſnake; t is jet black, with white ſpots from three to four feet long, and pro- portionably thick. When colonel Gordon (now commander in chief at the Cape) was in that country, in the year ſeventeen hundred and ſeventy-five, he mentioned to me a circumſtance of his having met two ſlave boys chaſed by a ſpring adder, which ſeemed to be gaining ground upon them, when he ſhot it through the middle.

" The night ſnake, which is more beautiful than any of the others, is from eighteen to twenty inches long, and very thin: it is belted with black, red, and yellow; and when near, at night, has the appearance of fire. The Hottentots call it killmen.

" Theſe ſix ſpecies of ſerpents, about the Cape of Good Hope, I had the opportunity of ſeeing; and brought home ſpecimens of moſt of them, preſerved in ſpirits, for fur- ther inſpection. I however regret much that as my chief object was the collection of plants, I had it not in my power to remain long enough in any one place to make ſuch ex- periments on their ſeveral poiſons as might have enabled me to have given a clear account of their effects from my own obſervation. There are, I have no doubt, many other ſnakes in that country with which we are as yet unacquainted. One which is called the ſpoog ſlang, or ſpitting ſnake, has been mentioned to me by the inhabitants of the country, who ſay it will throw its poiſon to the diſtance of ſeveral yards; and that people have been blinded by them; but this never came under my own inſpection.

" The black or rock ſcorpion, is nearly as venemous as any of the ſerpent tribe. A farmer who reſi- ded at a place called the Parle, near the Cape, was ſtung by one in the foot, during my ſtay in the coun- try, and died in a few hours.

" Doctor Syde, one of the Cape phyſicians, informed me that ſeve- ral people had been brought to him ſtung by ſcorpions, and that he found oil to be the beſt antidote he ever tried. The natives of India hold the part wounded as near to the fire as poſſible, for a conſider- able time, which, they ſay, produces a perfect cure.

" I ſhall here add a few obſerva- tions which occurred to me while

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ſerving in the ſouthern army in the Eaſt Indies, reſpecting ſome of our ſoldiers who were bitten by ſnakes in that campaign.

"The ſouthern countries of Indoſtan abound with the ſmall ſnake called the covra Manilla, which is well known to be very poiſonous. The bramins tell us that they can adminiſter complete relief in the moſt deſperate caſes; but their mode of practice has hitherto been kept a ſecret from Europeans. Colonel Fullarton, however, procured a ſmall box of their pills from the reverend Mr. Swartz, a miſſionary at Tanjore; and at the ſiege of Carrore we had an opportunity of proving the effects of them. One of our ſepoys was bitten, and ſo ill that we deſpaired of his life. The colonel gave him one of the pills, which ſeemed to act as a very ſtrong opiate for ſome time, and threw him into a delirium; in two days, however, the man was perfectly recovered.

"We had alſo a ſecond proof of their utility, though the man did not appear to be ſo ill as on the former occaſion. I was witneſs to a third caſe, where we could not procure theſe pills. A ſervant of lieutenant Smith, in the ſame regiment with myſelf, was bitten. The lieutenant gave him nothing but brandy and hot Madeira wine, and kept him in a ſtate of intoxication for twenty-four hours; the next day the pain was gone, but the man continued indiſpoſed for ſome time.

"A ſoldier in the ſeventy-eighth regiment, after a wound from a ſerpent, was ſo ill that his whole body was diſcoloured, and he was conſidered as incurable by all the ſurgeons in the army. In this caſe we could not have recourſe to the Bramin's pills; and it was thought that nothing but the ſtrength of his conſtitution could have ſaved him.

"Another circumſtance, reſpecting the bite of ſnakes, which happened near Bengal, will not, I flatter myſelf, be deemed unworthy of attention: when a brigade was cantoned, the houſes had not been inhabited for ſome time before. Soon after they went in, there were ſome men found dead in the morning; for which fact they were totally unable to account. The diſaſter, however, was ſoon diſcovered to proceed from the bite of ſnakes. On ſearching they found vaſt numbers of theſe animals in the holes of the mud-walls; the greateſt part of which they killed. They were then adviſed to lay a quantity of onions and garlick about their rooms, in the inſide; and after that, no further traces of them were perceived.

"It is much to be wiſhed that any certain remedy for the bite of thoſe poiſonous animals could be diſcovered, and ſuch as might be carried in the traveller's pocket when proceeding on a long journey. Botaniſts, or naturaliſts, are more expoſed than any other claſs of men as they are conſtantly wandering in the fields among ſhrubs and graſs where they cannot diſcover thoſe reptiles ſo readily as thoſe who confine themſelves to beaten paths. It is ſeldom they can carry a bed with them; and when lying on the ground they are in danger of turning themſelves on thoſe venemous creatures who often creep near the human body for the ſake of warmth. It is not uncommon for them to get into beds, as I have myſelf obſerved in the Eaſt Indies.

"Though there are few countries in the world which abound more with deleterious vegetables than the country adjacent to the Cape of Good Hope, yet the principal danger, to the traveller, reſults from the animated part of the creation

reation; he can always avoid the ne, when he cannot apprehend ne other. I am only acquainted ith four of the former kind, hich are commonly employed as nſtruments of deſtruction.

" The firſt is a large bulbous lant, amaryllis diſticha, which is alled mad poiſon, from the effects ſually produced on the animals hich are wounded by the weapons mpregnated with it. The natives repare this poiſon in the following anner: they take the bulbs, bout the time when they are put-ng out their leaves, and cutting hem tranſverſly, extract a thick luid, which is kept in the ſun till comes quite of the conſiſtence of um. It is then put up for uſe; nd the method of laying it on heir arrows has been already deſ-ribed.

" The hunters employ this ſpe-ies of poiſon chiefly for the pur-oſe of killing ſuch animals as are ntended for food, ſuch as antelopes nd other ſmall quadrupeds. After hey are wounded, they can, and lo in general, run for ſeveral miles; nd it frequently happens that they re not found till the next day, not-withſtanding the poiſonous ſubſtance aving penetrated the muſcular arts.

" When the leaves of this plant re young, the cattle are very fond of them, though they are inſtant death; the farmers therefore are very cautious not to ſuffer them to enter into the tracts which are ſuſ-pected of producing this plant.

" The ſecond is a ſpecies of eu-phorbia, which is found in that part of the country which is inha-bited by Boſhmen, and in the Great Nimiqua Land. The gum of this is alſo uſed for arrows; but the plant is more commonly uſed for poiſoning the water where the ani-mals reſort to drink; and a ſtranger who travels in that country, muſt be very careful in examining the ſpring before he drinks.

" This plant grows from about fifteen to twenty feet in height, ſending out many branches full of ſtrong ſpines. The natives cut off as many of the branches as they think neceſſary for the deſtruction of the animals they intend to poiſon. They generally conduct the water a few yards from the ſpring into a pit made for the purpoſe; after which they put in the euphorbia, and cover the ſpring, ſo that the creatures have no choice: and in that country water is very ſcarce; ſometimes it is twenty miles from one ſpring of water to another.

" The only animal I ever ſaw poiſoned by this means, was a zebra; it had ſcarcely proceeded half a mile from the water before it dropped; and I was aſſured by the natives that none eſcaped which drank of ſuch water, though they declared the fleſh was not injured by the poiſon.

" The third vegetable poiſon proceeds from a ſpecies of rhus, which is only found near the Great River, or Orange River; and is ſaid to be very dangerous. When this poiſon is extracting, the operators cover their eyes, as the leaſt drop touching that organ would certainly deprive them of ſight. It is ſometimes uſed for arrows.

" The fourth is the only poiſon really uſeful to the European inhabitants; it is a ſmall ſhrubby plant, producing a nut, called by the Dutch, woolf gift, or wolf poiſon, which they uſe for poiſoning the hyenas.

" The method of preparing this, is by taking the nuts and roaſting them as they do coffee, after which they pulverize them: they afterwards

wards take some pieces of meat, or a dead dog, which they stuff full of the powder, and throw them into the fields. The voracious hyenas meeting with any thing of this kind, soon devour it, and in general are found dead the following day."

The Natural History of the BUXTON and MATLOCK Waters in a Letter from Dr. Darwin, to Mr. Pilkington.

[From the First Volume of Pilkington's View of the present State of Derbyshire.]

"SEVERAL philosophers have supposed, that the warm springs of this country acquire their heat from the chemical decomposition of pyrites; and it was affirmed by the late Mr. Tissington, which has been lately cited in an ingenious work of Mr. Kirwan on mineralogy, that the warm water about Matlock owed its heat to the blue marle, which is mixed with pyrites, and is found in thin strata above and below the beds of lava or toadstone; for an account of which see Mr. Whitehurst's valuable book on the Theory of the Earth. But it has since been observed, that though warm water was found sometimes in these beds of pyrites and marle; yet that no smell or taste then attended it; which must have occurred, if the pyrites had been in a state of decomposition. And secondly, that cold water was found in these beds oftener than warm.

"The arguments in favour of another opinion appear to me to be much more conclusive, viz that the water of these springs is raised in vapour by subterraneous fires deep in the earth; and that this vapour is condensed under the surface of the mountains in the vicinity of the springs.

"1. The heat of these springs has been invariable perhaps for many centuries, certainly as long as we have had good thermometers; which shews that the water, which they arise from, is in a boiling state in some part of the earth. For as boiling water acquires a certain degree of heat, viz. 212, the steam which arises from it, (where it is not confined,) must always be of that degree of heat. Now the internal parts of the earth, a few feet below the surface, being always both in winter and summer of 48 degrees of heat, it follows, that if the steam or water, after it is condensed, flows through a given distance of the cold earth; it will become cooled from 212 to some degree of heat above 48, proportional to the distance between the mountain, in which it is condensed, and the place of its exit. And thus may for many ages preserve an uniformity of the degree of heat; which could not happen if it was produced by chemical combinations of materials near the surface of the earth.

"2. In the very dry summer of 1780, when all the cold springs in this part of the country either totally ceased, or were much diminished; I was well informed on the spot both at Matlock and Buxton, that the warm springs had suffered no observable decrease of their water. Whence I conclude, that the source of these warm springs were at a much greater depth beneath the surface of the earth than the cold ones: and that on that account the water

ater muſt firſt have been raiſed in e form of ſteam from thoſe great- depths.

" Another circumſtance ſhews, at the ſource of many of theſe aters is ſituated beneath the origin the cold ſprings; even after the eam, which produces them, is con- enſed into water: which is that eir heat continues always the ne both in winter and ſummer, wet ſeaſons and in dry, which vinces, that no cold water from e dews, or ſprings in conſequence them, is mixed with theſe ſources warm water.

" Indeed one of the ſprings at Matlock had much common cold ater mixed with it, lower down in s courſe towards the Derwent, hich occaſioned it to be neglected; ll a miner, Mr. Mather, propoſed ſt year to Mr. Simpſon, the pro- rietor, an ingenious deviſe to ſe- arate them; which was by fixing ipes into the mouth of the ſpring raiſe the hot water, before its xit, above the place, where the old ſprings enter into it; and thus puſh back the cold water into an ld mine-ſough, where it was ſaid ormerly to diſcharge itſelf; and us by looſing a part of the warm ater, to preſerve the remainder un- ixed; which I believe has ſo far ucceeded.

" 3. The rocks of limeſtone in ll this part of the country abound ith perpendicular clefts, in which re found the ores of zinc, lead, and opper. And it is hence probable, hat not only the ſteam of water at reſent, (which produces theſe arm ſprings,) but that thoſe me- als themſelves, and the fluor or ba- o-ſelenite, which attends them, ave in former ages been raiſed in- o thoſe ſubterraneous fires, which aiſed the continents and iſlands rom the primeval ocean.

" 4. The exiſtence of central fires in the earth in the early ages of the world is demonſtrated by the elevation of the ſolid parts of the globe above the ocean; and the ſhattered condition of its ſtrata; with the immenſe maſſes of lava then produced; which go under the names of toadſtone, baſaltes moor- ſtone, porphyry, and granite, as are ſo well explained in Mr. Whi- hurſt's, and in Dr. Hutton's theo- ries of the earth. The preſent exiſtence of central fires ſeems pro- bable from the many volcanoes, which are ſpiracula, or chimneys, belonging to thoſe great fires; and it is probable, that by the eſcape of elaſtic vapours from theſe is owing the ſmall extent of modern earth- quakes, compared with thoſe of re- mote antiquity, of which the veſ- tiges remain all over the globe. Another argument for the preſent exiſtence of immenſe ſubterraneous fires, is that the great earthquake at Liſbon produced undulations on the lakes of Scotland; and was felt in the mines of Derbyſhire: (Phil. Tranſactions, which could not ea- ſily happen, but by a percuſſion on one ſide of a confined fluid lava; which would be propagated to the other, as ſtriking the gentleſt blow on one ſide of a bladder diſtended with water is felt by the hand placed on the other ſide. To which may be added, that in ſome mines, the deeper you deſcend the warmer you perceive them. Morinus in a tract de locis ſubterraneis, p. 131. ſays, that in ſome mines of Hun- gary, which are 500 cubits deep, the heat becomes troubleſome, when the miners get below 480 feet of depth. And Monſ. De Luc, on going 1359 feet perpendicular into the mines of Hartz in July, 1778, on a very fine day, found the air at the bottom a little warmer then at the top of the ſhaft. (Phil. Tranſ.)

" 5. Becauſe there are ſprings

of hot water in all countries, where open volcanoes evidently exist: whence from analogy we may conclude the hot springs in countries where open volcanoes have existed, but are now not open, are owing to the same cause acting in a less powerful manner.

" 6. Add to this, that if those waters had been heated by the chemical decomposition of pyrites, some of them at least would probably have retained a strong chalybeate taste, or sulphureous smell: or that they would all of them have been impregnated with some similar material; which on the chemical analyses of these waters of Buxton and Matlock, does not appear to be the fact.

" 7. I come now to another circumstance, which very much corroborates the above theory of the production of the springs from the steam raised from deep subterraneous fires, and not from the decomposition of pyrites. The strata of the earth in this part of Derbyshire consist of beds of limestone and of lava (or toadstone) which lie reciprocally one upon the other; in many parts of the country, there are three beds of each, which are very many yards thick. See Whitehurst's Theory of the Earth. Now if we suppose the steam rising from subterraneous fires to be owing partly to water slowly subsiding upon those fires, and to limestone gradually calcined by them; it must happen, that the steam rising through the perpendicular clefts in the superincumbent rocks must be replete with calcareous gas (or fixed air); with some phlogisticated air.

" Dr. Priestley from 5 ounces of lime stone obtained 1160 ounce-measures of air, nine tenths of which was fixed air, and the other tenth phlogisticated air. From 4 ounces of white spar he obtained 830 ounce-measures of air, the first portion of which has but one fourth of fixed air; which however varied in the course of the experiment, being once three fourths, then one half, then one third of fixed air. Vol. vi. p. 226.

" If this steam so impregnated be condensed in lime-stone strata, the fixed air in this hot steam will supersaturate itself again with calcareous earth. Now this is what precisely happens to the waters at Matlock which are replete with calcareous particles; and appears by the copious deposition of tupha, or calcareous incrustations, along the channels in which they flow. For in general it happens, that springs of water wear themselves valleys from the sources, as is done by the water at Buxton; but those springs at Matlock have produced rocks and mountains of a sponge-like calcareous stone between their fountains and the Derwent, with which all the houses at Matlock are constructed and many of the stone fences.

" It may seem extraordinary that fixed air, or, calcareous gas which is known to precipitate lime from water, should render limestone more soluble in water. This however is evinced by the experiments of Mr. Cavendish, who added to lime-water, which had been rendered turbid by means of calcareous gas, more of the same gas; which enabled the water to redissolve the precipitated limestone. Which however is consentaneous to other chemical phenomena, as one portion of alcali added to a solution of iron in an acid precipitates the iron, which is redissolved by the addition of a greater portion of alcali. Water by a large quantity of calcareous gas will thus in close vessels super-saturate itself with lime; which will gradually precipitate in the form of limestone, when exposed to the air, by the evaporation of the superfluous gas.

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" In the beginning of October 80, I was preſent with my friend Mr. Edegeworth at the opening of wo of the ſprings of Matlock bout 200 yards above their uſual laces of appearance. We found hem both at theſe new openings a- out one degree of heat, or ſome- vhat more, warmer than at the laces of their uſual exit. The upper ne, which could be beſt ſeen, iſſued rom ſome cracks or fiſſures in the pper ſurface of a bed of toadſtone, nd between it and blue marle, vhich lies over it: under which narle it ſeems to have been condenſ- d; and thence to have ſuper-ſa- urated itſelf with calcareous par- icles. I examined this marle by neans of acids, and found it to be calcareous; except ſome ſhining bits of whitiſh pyrites, which had no ap- pearance of being in a ſtate of de- compoſition.

" On the contrary the ſteam, which produces the water of Buxton, is probably condenſed in the ſub- ſtance of the toadſtone or lava; and not in a ſtratum of marle or lime- ſtone, like the Matlock water; and hence the great difference of their contents. As one edge of theſe ſtrata of lime-ſtone and lava, where- ver there are ſprings, is always ele- vated higher than the other; it would be eaſy by attending to the inclination of theſe ſtrata to diſcover, on which ſide of the bath is ſituated the mountain, in which the ſteam is condenſed; which probably may not be more than a mile or two from the eruption of the ſprings; becauſe in opening the ſprings at Matlock at a place about 200 yards above the wells, the water (though already collected into a kind of vein) was cooled more than a degree; and this cool ng muſt proceed much faſ- ter, where the water is diffuſely and and thinly ſpread between two con- tiguous ſtrata. And further, as the progreſs of this water muſt warm in ſome degree the ſurface of the earth, beneath which it paſſes after its condenſation; and particularly at the pl ce of its condenſation; it is not improbable, but its courſe might be detected by obſervations made in rimy mornings, or when ſnow has lain long on the ground, by their melting or diſappearance of it firſt in that part; or perhaps by the earlier vegetation of the graſs or trees on thoſe parts of the ſurface. A Mr. Taylor, who once kept this bath, produced early vegetables by conveying a ſtream of the warm wa- ter under a border of his garden. If this ſource ſhould ever be diſco- vered by mining, I ſuppoſe the wa- ter by being received nearer the place of its devaporation, would be found of a greater degree of heat from 82, its preſent heat, up to 212, or the heat of boil ng water.

" I cannot conclude this part of the ſubject without obſerving the analogy between the production of cold and of hot ſprings; they are both produced from vapour; that, which produces cold ſprings, is brought to the ſummits of moun- tains by the atmoſphere; and being there devaporated ſlides down be- tween the ſtrata, which compoſe the hill; and burſt out through ſome of theſe ſtrata below. That, which forms hot ſprings, is condenſed un- der the ſame ſtrata of the moun- tains, over which ſlides the cold wa- ter devaporated from the atmo- ſphere; in theſe reſpects exactly imitating, if large things may be compared with ſmall, an old-faſhion- ed alembic, and its ſuperincumbent refrigeratory. Without the exiſtence of mountains, or elevations of ground, neither hot nor cold ſprings could have exiſted; nor indeed without their having been ſhattered in their elevation; for ſome of the ſtrata of

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the earth being deficient at the ſummits of mountains gives acceſs to the dews to ſlide between the firſt and ſecond; or between the ſecond and third ſtrata; and thus form cold ſprings below. And the perpendicular clefts or cracks in theſe mountains give acceſs to the ſtreams raiſed from below for the production of warm ſprings.

"The contents of the waters of Buxton and Matlock much countenance the theory above delivered, for if ſteam be raiſed from ſubterraneous furnaces, where limeſtone is probably in a ſtate of calcination, much calcareous gas (or fixed air), and ſome phlogiſticated air, would ariſe with the aqueous ſteam; theſe are found in the Buxton water in the looſe ſtate of bubbles, according to the analyſis of doctor Pearſon, and in this the Buxton water reſembles the waters at Bath; which are ſaid by Dr. Prieſtley to poſſeſs ſimilar kinds of air. Exp. v. 2. p. 223. And as theſe airs ſeem to be the principal ingredients of both theſe waters, there is reaſon to believe, both from this circumſtance, and from their ſucceſs in relieving ſimiliar diſeaſes, that their medicinal powers are very ſimilar. At the ſame time, as the waters at Bath are ſaid to contain a very minute quantity of iron, thoſe of Buxton may be better adapted to ſome inflammatory habits; and as there is a chalybeate ſpring at Buxton near the other, it would be eaſy occaſionally to render theſe waters ſtill more ſimilar to thoſe of Bath by adding a ſmall portion of the chalybeate water to that of Saint Anne's well at the time of drinking it; and thus doing that by art at Buxton which at Bath is done by nature.

"In the Buxton water the fixed air is found in looſe bubbles, becauſe it does not meet with any calcareous earth, or limeſtone to combine itſelf with: in the Matlock water the contrary occurs; it has no looſe air-bubbles, becauſe the fixable air is combined with lime; and thus this water is replete with calcareous earth in ſubtile ſolution; and in this reſpect, I ſuppoſe, reſembles the Briſtol water.

"The incruſtations, which are depoſited from theſe calcareous or hard waters, were once ſuppoſed to contribute to produce the gravel or ſtone in the kidneys and bladder; this opinion particularly prevailed about half a century ago in Paris; where it was ſaid, that a certain diſtrict of that city, ſupplied with water which incruſted the pipes, through which it paſſed, was much afflicted with the ſtone in the bladder. Monſ. Condamine, an ingenious and active philoſopher, on a minute inquiry found the aſſertion to be totally devoid of truth. Since that time the waters of Carleſbad, which incruſt whatever is thrown into them like thoſe of Matlock, have been much frequented by patients with gravel and ſtone, and it is ſaid with advantage. (Philoſ. Tranſact.) Since the great light thrown on this ſubject by the chemical accuracy of Bergman and Scheele (whoſe premature deaths are a loſs to mankind,) the uſe of theſe waters may be better underſtood. By their experiments it appears, that the ſtony concretions in animal bodies conſiſt of ſaccharine acid and air, and that this acid has a greater affinity than any other to calcareous earth. Now as the ſaccharine acid is perpetually generated in the ſtomach during the digeſtion of our aliment; it is probable, the ſalutary effects of theſe calcareous waters, ſuch as Matlock and Briſtol, may be owing to their ſaturating the ſuperabundancy of this ſaccharine acid; and that thus they

they may prevent the tendency which ſome of our fluid ſecretions poſſeſs, of producing calculous, and perhaps gouty and bilious concretions; and prevent the increaſe in ſize of thoſe already formed. On the ſame principle they may tend to render purulent matter leſs acrimonious; as they are ſuppoſed to be of advantage in pulmonary and ſcrophulous ulcers. Certain I am, that the cold ſprings alſo, which are replete with calcareous matter, as St. Alkmund's and other wells about Derby, are ſalubrious to the drinkers of them; as the daily experience of the inhabitants who uſe them, evinces. And I am acquainted with one perſon, who has drank of cold ſpring water very much loaded with this kind of earth for his only potation for the laſt five years, uſing about two pints a day of it; and enjoyed a perfect ſtate of health.

"There is another diſeaſe in which the waters of Matlock and of Briſtol are celebrated, the diabætes. In this ſo great a quantity of ſugar is generated by the powers of digeſtion, that the urine becomes loaded with ſugar. A patient of this kind in the infirmary at Stafford, who eat and drank about thrice the quantity allowed to other patients, made about ſixteen and ſometimes eighteen pints of water a day; and by my deſire ſome of this was evaporated by Mr. Hughes of that place, and produced about an ounce of very coarſe ſugar from every pint of the water. An account of this caſe; and a theory of diabætes is publiſhed in a pamphlet "on the Inverted Motions of the Lymphatic Syſtem and a Criterion between Pus and Mucus." Cadel, London. In this diſeaſe therefore it is probable the uſe of theſe calcareous waters is to be aſcribed to their affinity to the ſaccharine acid, which in thoſe caſes would ſeem to be in great abundance.

"So far have I performed my promiſe to you in writing down, what has occurred to me concerning the natural hiſtory of the waters of Buxton and Matlock: to enter minutely into the medical hiſtory of theſe, and of Kedleſton water, and other mineral waters of this country would require a volume, and take up much more of my time and attention than I could at preſent contrive to beſtow upon it. But I cannot leave this account of calcareous or hard waters without adding; that I ſuppoſe, from the great affinity between calcareous earth and ſaccharine acid, may be explained a circumſtance, the theory of which has never been underſtood, and therefore the fact has generally been doubted; and that is, that hard waters make ſtronger beer than ſoft ones. I appeal to the brewers of Burton for the fact, who have the ſoft water of the Trent running on one ſide of their brew-houſes; and yet prefer univerſally the hard or calcareous water ſupplied by their pumps. I ſuppoſe there may be ſome ſaccharine acid in the malt, (which is not all of it equally perfectly made into ſugar by the vegetable digeſtive power of the germinating barley,) which by its attracting the calcareous earth of hard waters may produce a kind of mineral ſugar; which like the true ſugar may be convertible into ſpirit: for a ſimilar purpoſe, I ſuppoſe, lime is uſed by the ſugar-bakers in refining their ſugar, though the theory of its effects is unknown to them.

"There are other ſources of water in Derbyſhire, which ſhould be mentioned. The waters of the Hamps and Manifold ſink into the earth near Wetton mills, and riſe again in Ilam gardens. The ſub-

terraneous cavities, in which theſe ſtreams paſs, ſeem to have been made in the early ages of the world, (as all the caverns of this county, as Peak-hole, Elden hole, Pool's-hole, and Thor's houſe near Wetton mill,) by long regions of earth riſing to let out the confined vapours from concealed volcanoes; and opening, as it were, their jaws; which, when the ſides ſubſided again, did not exactly fit each other; and thus left long ſubterraneous cavities.

"The ſulphur waters of Kedleſton are celebrated for curing the ſame diſeaſes as thoſe of Harrogate, but are conſiderably weaker; and may therefore be better adapted to feeble conſtitutions. Theſe ſulphureous wells abound with marine ſalt, and contain ſome Epſom ſalt; to which they all of them owe their purgatives qualities. I am well informed, that the ſalt ſprings in Cheſhire, if they are left to reſt a few weeks without being pumped, acquire a ſimilar ſulphureous ſmell; and ſuſpect, that theſe ſulphur wells may be claſſed with other ſalt ſprings, of greater or leſs degree of ſaturation; but that ſome of their ingredients are in a ſtate of decompoſition.

"The biſhop of Llandaff, (to whom the public is ſo much obliged for making chemiſtry both uſeful and agreeable) mentions in his ingenious obſervations on Harrogate waters, that one of the ſprings ariſes in a bed of ſhale; ſome parts of which are ſofter than other parts, as in a ſtate of decompoſition: about a mile eaſtward of the Kedleſton bath is a ſtratum of ſhale, which is ſeen on the ſides of the hollow way in Quarndon town; and, where it is there expoſed to the air, ſeems of a ſoft kind. Whence there is reaſon to ſuſpect, that the waters being previouſly impregnated with vitriolic acid from ſhale may be neceſſary to the production of theſe ſulphureous waters. The Kedleſton water is weaker than that of Harrogate in reſpect to the quantity of marine ſalt it contains; I ſuppoſe about two ounces of bay ſalt added to a gallon of this water renders it in every reſpect as efficacious as the Harrogate water, in thoſe diſeaſes commonly termed ſcorbutic, and in worm-caſes, particularly aſcarides.

"At Heage there is a water, I am informed, with a very auſtere taſte, which is worth inquiry; as it is probably either a chalybeate diſſolved in vitriolic acid, like that at Somerſham near Cambridge; or an aluminous water, like that of Nevil-Holt in Leiceſterſhire. Theſe ſprings, which abound with vitriolic acid, ſometimes produce moraſſes, which have a remarkable property of preſerving fleſh-meat; I have been told there are ſuch moraſſes in the wilds of the Peak; in which dead game, and even large pieces of mutton have been buried one year, and found nearly unchanged the next. In countries abounding with coals there are generally chalybeate ſprings; of theſe, thoſe which ſooner looſe their iron when expoſed to the air, are generally preferred for medical purpoſes; of this kind is that of Quarndon near Kedleſton; in theſe waters the iron is diſſolved by means of calcareous gas, or fixed air as ſhewn by Mr. Lane; which is a volatile acid, and when expoſed to the air ſoon eſcapes; and the iron is then depoſited in a calciform ſtate like ochre. A dark-coloured ſhale of ſimilar appearance to that ſeen on the ſides of the hollow road near the chalybeate ſpring at Quarndon, covers the collieries at Bedworth, near Coventry. There is a ſimilar ſhale alſo appears on the ſides of the turnpike road at Hulland near Aſhburn; it is probable there are coals under

under both these parts of the country, which from their situations would be valuable acquisitions; and boring for coals, if properly managed, is not very expensive; as the superincumbent strata are generally of soft materials.

"I shall conclude this long letter by mentioning an artificial spring of water, which I produced by boring near the Derwent in Full-street in Derby.—As the copious spring, called St. Alkmund's well, rises about half a mile from this part of Full-street, and about six feet higher in respect to level; I supposed the same stratum of marle might be continued to this place, though covered with houses, and some feet of rubbish. On clearing an old well, which was about four yards deep, and contained very bad water, the upper surface of the marle appeared. The old well was then walled round with bricks, and water-clay, so that the bottom was kept perfectly dry: A hole about two inches diameter was then bored about 15 yards deeper: and then some sand was brought up mixed with the marle; and a spring gradually arose; and by driving a wooden pipe into the hole, and afterwards putting a leaden pipe through this, the water arose about two feet above the surface, though not up to the level of St. Alkmund's well, as I had expected; it has now for five years continued to flow; and I think rather increases in quantity, and perhaps in purity. A more particular account of this well is related in the Philosophical Transactions.

"I mention it in this letter, because I suppose there are many situations in which water might be thus procured by boring a perpendicular hole near the edges of valleys, or a horizontal one into the sides of mountains, for the convenience of watering cattle or for flooding grounds, and for the purposes of agriculture. And I suppose the springs in marly countries are preferable to river-water, as they are always loaded with calcareous earth."

ENQUIRY into the PRESENT STATE of the GLACIERS of SAVOY.

From the enlarged Edition of Mr. COXE's Travels in SWITZERLAND.

"IN regard to your question, "Whether the glaciers are in a state of increase or diminution?" though I declined on a former occasion to enter minutely upon a subject, which required much accurate observation and repeated experimental investigation; yet I ventured to make one remark, which seemed to prove the occasional increase and diminution of the glaciers; contrary to the opinion of some philosophers, who maintain, that they continue always the same; and of others, who assert, that they are continually increasing.

"The borders of the glacier of Montanvert are mostly skirted with trees: towards its base a vast arch of ice rises to near a hundred feet in height; under which the Arveron rushes with considerable force, and in a large body of water. As we approached the ice, we passed through a wood of firs; those trees

which ſtand at a little diſtance from the arch are about eighty feet high, and are undoubtedly of a very great age. Between theſe and the glacier the trees are of a later growth; as is evident from their texture and inferior ſize. Others, ſtill ſmaller, have been overturned and enveloped in the ice. There ſeems to be a kind of regular gradation in the age of theſe ſeveral trees, from the largeſt which are ſtanding, to the ſmalleſt that lie proſtrate.

"Theſe facts juſtly lead to the following concluſions:—that the glacier once extended as far as the row of tall firs; that, upon its gradual diſſolution, a number of trees ſhot up in the very ſpots which it formerly occupied; that, ſince that period, the ice has again advanced; and has overturned the trees of later date, before they had grown to any conſiderable height.

"To theſe circumſtances, the following fact may be added. Large ſtones of granite are uſually found at a ſmall diſtance from the extremities of the glacier. Theſe ſtones have certainly fallen from the mountains upon the ice; have been carried on in its progreſs; and have tumbled into the plain upon the diſſolution or ſinking of the ice which ſupported them. Theſe ſtones, which the inhabitants call moraine, form a kind of border towards the foot of the valley of ice, and have been puſhed forward by the glacier in its advances: they extend even to the place occupied by the larger pines.

"As ſeveral writers upon Switzerland have, in contradiction to theſe facts, endeavoured to prove, that the ſnow and ice are continually accumulating in the Alps, I ſhall here throw together a few additional remarks, that may tend to confirm the contrary opinion.

"The inferior glacier of Grindelwald was ſo conſiderably diminiſhed ſince my firſt expedition in 1776, that the ſpot which its extremity then occupied was, in 1785, removed at leaſt four hundred paces from its former ſite. In the valley of Chamouny, the Murailles de Glace, which I deſcribed as forming the border of the glacier of Boſſun, no longer exiſted; and young trees had ſhot up in the parts which were then covered by the glacier of Montanvert.

"The advocates, however, for the increaſe of the glaciers, admitting theſe facts, yet deny that any judgment can be formed concerning the ſtate of the more elevated regions, from what paſſes in the vallies, where the ſun has power to bring the fruits of the earth to maturity. They aſſert that it appears, both from theory and fact, that more ſnow falls, and more ice is annually formed in the Alps than can be annually diſſolved.

"To judge from theory; they argue, that the cold occaſioned by the maſs of ice already formed ought to augment it ſtill further; and in regard to experience, it is evident, that within the memory of the preſent generation, many mountains have been covered, many paſtures and habitations invaded, and many paſſages irrecoverably obſtructed by the ice.

"In conſidering the arguments drawn from theory, we may obſerve, that the cauſes which tend to the diminution of the ice, are no leſs powerful than the augmentation of the cold, which is ſuppoſed to occaſion its indefinite increaſe. Theſe cauſes are principally; 1. rain and ſleet in the leſs elevated regions; 2. evaporation; 3. deſcent of the ſnow and ice, both precipitous and gradual; 4. heat of the atmo-

oſphere; 5. mean temperature he earth.

1. The rain and ſleet, which during ſummer upon the Lower ciers, not only thaws the ice, increaſes thoſe rills that collect the ſurface, excavate channels, end into the clefts, and aſſiſt in ning them.

2. Evaporation is a ſtill more verful cauſe; as it acts at all ghts and in all ſeaſons.

3. The deſcent of the ſnow ice, as diſtinguiſhed by preci- ous and gradual. The precipit-, or continual fallings of con- led ſnow, termed by the natives lanches, are detached either by ir own weight, ſoftened from ir hold by the heat of the ſun or warm air which blows from the th, or overthrown by the violent rricanes that are extremely com- on in the Upper Alps. When eſe maſſes are precipitated into a lder air, though they may ſome- nes indeed reſiſt the influence of a', and form valleys of ice, yet ey are more uſually diſſolved. heſe avalanches are moſt common the Upper Glaciers; whereas the adual deſcent of the ice is chiefly nfined to the Lower Glaciers, and a very powerful agent in leſſen- g the aggregate maſs.

"All the Lower Glaciers, or llies of ice, reſt on an inclined ain, are arched or hollow, and e undermined and weakened by e torrents, which are conſtantly owing, as well from the Upper laciers, as from their own interior rface.

"The natural tendency of a eavy body in ſuch a poſition is to eſcend; and its progreſſive motion accelerated in proportion to its own eight, and the greater inclination f its baſis. This progreſſive mo- ion, which acts, though imperceptibly, yet gradually and uniformly carries the ice into thoſe cultivated plains and vallies, where the ſun ripens the fruits of the field, and where a period is neceſſarily put to its further increaſe.

"If you require a proof of this imperceptible deſcent, the anſwer is obvious. It is to be collected from the facts which I have already enumerated; namely, from the trees which are occaſionally overturned by the ice in its progreſs, and by the moraine of ſtones which is obſerved at the bottom of the Lower Glaciers. Theſe ſtones being ſimilar to the mountains of the Upper Alps, and eſſentially different from the rocks below, muſt have been conveyed by the ice in its deſcent from the Upper Glaciers.

"4. The heat of the atmoſphere, or the efficacy of the ſun's rays on the outward ſurface of the Glaciers, is too evident to require any proof, even to thoſe who have never been in the Alps.

"Another cauſe of a thaw, derived from the heat of the atmoſphere, which will not be expected by thoſe who have not viſited theſe icy regions, is the warm winds which blow by night as well as by day in the Upper no leſs than the Lower Glaciers. Theſe warm winds are, during ſummer, ſo common in theſe parts, that I never croſſed a glacier without feeling, in ſome particular poſitions, a warmth ſimilar to the air of a hot bath.

"5. But as theſe two cauſes only operate in ſummer; and as the ſun's rays do not produce ſufficient effect in the higheſt parts, we muſt have recourſe to the mean temperature of the earth, which ſeems to be the greateſt and moſt powerful agent in preventing an indefinite augmentation of ice and ſnow. This mean

temperature, termed by ſome philoſophers the internal heat of the earth, is always above the freezing point, as is evident from the heat of the ſprings which iſſue from the bowels of the earth. In winter therefore, or in thoſe high regions of the globe where the cold is uſually below the freezing point, when any ſpot of ground is covered with only a thin coat of ſnow, it may be ſo far cooled, to a certain depth, by the influence of the external air, as not to be capable of diſſolving any part of the ſuperincumbent ſnow. But when the maſs of ſnow is of ſuch a thickneſs as to protect the ſurface of the ground from the effects of the atmoſpherical cold, the mean temperature, which is always above the freezing point, will be ſufficient to melt the contiguous ſurface of ſnow, and to occaſion a conſtant thaw, which ſupplies thoſe currents of water that flow, at all ſeaſons, from the Upper and Lower Glaciers.

" In regard to the argument derived from experience, it is ſuffi cient to obſerve, that while I admi the facts which prove the progreſ of the ice, it by no means ſeems t follow that its ſum is perpetually in creaſing. For the advocates wh ſupport this opinion, while the ſcrupulouſly enumerate the place which have been invaded by the ice do not take any notice of thoſe parts no leſs numerous, from which th ice has retired.

" During my ſecond expeditio into the Alps, I alſo made this poin of controverſy a particular object o my reſearches; and on enquirin from the chaſſeurs, and other perſon who frequent the mountains, th greateſt part were of opinion tha the collection of ice and ſnow eve in the elevated regions, was by n means in a continual ſtate of aug mentation; but that while it gaine in ſome places, it diminiſhed i others; and that upon an averag the aggregate maſs was nearly th ſame."

ACCOUNT of a ſingular SPECIES of VOLCANO.

[From M. DE NON's Travels in SICILY and MALTA.]

" AN Agrigentine, named Gubernatis, with whom I had become acquainted, and to whom I was indebted for great part of my information reſpecting that city, conducted me one day to one of the moſt intereſting curioſities of the country, and which has hitherto been neglected by all modern travellers: it is a volcano of a peculiar ſpecies, not reſembling any other, either in its eruptions, the matter it emits, or the form it aſſumes.

" This phænomenon is ſituated between Aragona and Girgenti, ſix miles from the latter and four from the former. It was known to Soli nus and Fazello, who have bot mentioned it. In the time of th latter, the place was called Mayh ruca; its preſent name is Macalub ba. For ſeveral ages paſt it man feſted itſelf ſo obſcurely, and wit ſo little noiſe, that it was forgotte and no longer known to any but th poſſeſſor of the eſtate is lies in. Bu laſt year, on the 29th of Septem ber, 1777, at ſunſet, a column o thick ſmoke iſſued from the centr which continued riſing till ſix in th morning of the next day, when, b a terrible exploſion, it opened itſe

a mou

mouth, from whence it ſhot forth
o the air, with a tremendous
iſe, a column of fine potters earth,
ich roſe to the height of above
ty feet, ſome ſay twice as high;
d ſpreading into the form of a
ſhroom, divided and covered part
the orifice from which it had pro
eded, while the remainder return-
g back to its centre, occaſioned
its fall, a deep and rumbling
r, which was ſoon followed by a
ſh exploſion. Theſe throes con-
ued at intervals of every ſix mi-
t s; and an hour and a half after,
recommenced with more violence
n ever, ſo that in the ſix hours
laſted, there were four diſtinct
ptions, which covered with clay
ſpace of two hundred and fifty
t in diameter. The ſoil was not
ſed by it above three feet, the
tter being ſo attenuated, as to
ead in falling, and flowing like a
a, on the neighbouring emi-
nces, filling up their cavities. The
uth having been filled by this
tter, there remained no more
pearance than before of a vol-
no. Theſe eruptions happened
ven months before I viſited the
ce. The proprietor of the ground,
o had been an eye witneſs of
m, was ſo good as to accompany
and to communicate to me all the
rticulars I have related. We exa-
ned the place together, but could
cover nothing but a cavity ſcarce-
perceptible, covered with a cruſt,
ked and cracked by the heat of
ſun. Upwards of ſixty apertures,
m four to ſix inches in diameter,
nifeſted the conſtant exertions of
ſubterraneous power, by a perpe-
l ebullition of ſalt water, mixed
th an almoſt impalpable clay,
ing every inſtant from theſe
ertures, the matter ſubſiding and
ing, like coffee boiling in a kettle.
ound each mouth little craters
re formed in ſhape of cones, which
the fluidity of the matter prevented
from riſing to above ſix or ſeven
inches, and from theſe craters flowed
little fluid lavas, which inſinuated
themſelves into, and were left in the
chinks; the whole abſolutely form-
ing the repreſentation, in miniature,
of a volcano, with all its wonderful
phænomena.

"I was ſo anxious to examine it,
that approaching too near and haſti-
ly, my feet broke the cruſt, and I
was ready to ſink into the clay. I
proceeded with more caution there-
fore to another aperture, and laid
myſelf on the ground in order to
preſent a greater ſurface, and have a
near view. I applied my ear to the
orifice, and heard no internal noiſe,
but a ticking exactly like that pro-
duced by ſmall ſparks drawn from
the conductor of an electrical ma-
chine. I found that this noiſe was
occaſioned by the exploſion of the
air bubbles which were continually
dilating, and that the noiſe of the
dilatation was ſtronger than in ordi-
nary water, in proportion to the
weight and denſity of the matter
whence they proceeded. Theſe
bubbles were ſometimes powerful
enough to make an exploſion four
inches above the mouth. The air
that evaporated from it had the
ſmell of a brick kiln newly opened.
I applied my tongue to the fluid
matter, and found nothing but the
taſte of ſea-ſalt, only a little
acrid.

"I cloſed one of the apertures
perfectly tight with my hand and
felt the preſſure of the air repelling
it; the matter now eſcaped more
abundantly from the adjoining
mouths, and the air ſwelled under
my hand, ſo that in lifting it, it
was followed by a noiſe like that
of the air pump after a ſlight ſtroke
of the piſton; which evidently
proves a general communication of
all the apertures. Another proof is,

that on our advancing to the centre, the weight of four perſons preſſing on the cruſt, made the matter iſſue more plentifully at once from every crater. I ſtill proceeded to examine ſome new ones; in ſome of which I found marks of a bituminous mire, and in all of them a marine ſalt elaborated by the ſun, and ſpread over the ſurface of the earth. I introduced my hand into one of the holes, and found the matter tepid like the water of a warm bath. I tried to ſound the depth of it with my cane of ſix feet long, which entered without the leaſt reſiſtance, and gave no ſigns of a bottom. I then tried a ſecond time the thickneſs of the cruſt, and finding it but ſix inches at the apertures, began to perceive the danger of making obſervations on this phænomenon, leſs dreaded, but more dangerous that any of the kind; for remaining ſome time in the ſame place, I diſtinctly perceived that the repeated preſſure of the foot moiſtened a freſh, and diluted this cruſt, which if it happened to give way muſt inevitable precipitate us into a hot mud, where we ſhould meet with unavoidable and dreadful death. We finiſhed our examination of this place therefore with the greateſt precaution. I remarked, that this volcano not only threw forth moiſtened earth, but ſtone, and a ſpecies of baked earth of little conſiſtence, which the air deſtroys and ſeparates into flakes. I obſerved likewiſe different ſorts of talc, ſome in leaf like cryſtal, and found iron ore and marcaſite, with the efflorescence of copper; and on examining the lands adjoining to the volcano, met with the ſame productions. In ſome places too there was a cruſt rendered hard and ſolid by time, and ſmall mouths producing the ſame effects, and this at a great diſtance from thoſe of the eruption of 1777. I picked up a ſalt there, not to be attenuated by time. Since, notwithſtanding the antiquity of the other eruptions, whoſe date is unknown, there is little or no vegetation in all the ſpace in which theſe apertures are found. This rock ſtone, and talc, and theſe minerals, which do not partake of the nature of the clay they are found in, prove that under the bed of this fluid earth, there is a rock, below which lies the principle of this phænomenon. The air bubbles, the odour they exhale, the tepidity of the water, and above all, the ſpouting and noiſy eruption of laſt year, leave no room to doubt of the cauſe being volcanic.

"If I might be allowed to hazard any conjecture of my own, concerning the cauſe of a phænomenon with which we are ſo little acquainted, I ſhould ſay that the ſubterranean fire that reigns throughout this part of the iſland, from Siacca hither, meets in this place with ſome ſalt ſprings, which ſubtilizing a light earth, leaves here more readily than elſewhere a paſſage for the air, produced by the fire; that this paſſage of the air continually lifting, mingling, and attenuating more and more this earth by its continual heat, it becomes at length ſo elaborated and light, as to give way to the power that raiſes it, and that immediately after the volcanic evaporation, this humid matter, falling back on itſelf, reſumes in its turn the power it has loſt on the volcano; and that here in ſhort, as at the ſtoves of Sciacca and in the country round Palma where a great deal of ſulphur is fabricated, we can diſcover only the principles of a volcano, the materials of which apparently are neither ſufficiently abundant, or complete nor renewed often enough, to produce the great effects of Veſuvius and Ætna."

MOI

MODE of CULTIVATING and GATHERING MANNA at CARINI.

[From the ſame Work.]

"A Great quantity of excellent manna is collected at Carini, which oozes from a ſort of aſh-tree, the leaf of which in ſhape bears ſome reſemblance to that of the acacia, and the bark in its texture to that of the ebon-tree. I had before found manna trees at Termini and Palermo; but they appeared to me ſo young, that I took them for nurſery plants. I found here, however, that youth is the period of abundance with this tree, in which, as ſoon as it is ſeven or eight years old, and has grown to the height of eight feet, they begin to make horizontal inciſions in the the bark, from whence flows the manna. This operation is repeated every two days, from the fifteenth of July, until the rains or fogs of autumn ſuſpend the circulation, or adulterate the quality of this glutinous gum. Theſe inciſions are made one above the other, from the ſurface of the earth to the top of the tree, and the operation is daily repeated as long as the ſeaſon permits. The liquor firſt appears like a white froth extremely light, pleaſing to the palate, and of a very agreeable flavour. The heat of the ſun coagulates this frothy juice, and gives it the form of ſtalactites. This is what they call lachrymatory or cane manna; the deareſt and fineſt ſort. It remains almoſt white, and the glutinous and more highly coloured liquor that now diſtils from it, is received on leaves of the Indian fig, placed for that purpoſe at the foot of the tree. This too becomes at length congealed by the ſun, and being then taken up in lumps, forms what is called fat manna, which is heavier, more purgative, and of much leſs value. It is this part of it alone, which, when freſh, poſſeſſes that faint and diſagreable taſte ſo diſguſting in manna; for that in cane, eaten off the tree, is of an agreeable flavour, and an excellent ſtomachic. The latter is detached from the bark by bending the tree and ſhaking it. When the ſeaſon is rainy, the quantity produced is conſiderably leſs, and they are obliged to gather it every day, which occaſions it to be leſs fine and clear; that which has been wet is worth nothing, and corrupts. The method of multiplying this tree is to ſow it, and tranſplant when at the height of three or four feet. When the ſtem is entirely covered with inciſions, they cut it down cloſe to the ground, and it puſhes forth tufts of young wood, of which they preſerve one or two ſhoots on each ſucker, on which they repeat the former proceſs. The wood is hard, heavy, and bitter, and the decoction of it aperitive, and of great efficacy in the dropſy. Every climate is not adapted to the culture of this tree. It is productive only in hot countries, and does not thrive, unleſs where it is expoſed to the north winds. This part of the iſland only produces manna, which, though leſs celebrated than that of Calabria, is dearer, and preferred to it. The ſuperiority may ariſe from its being a native production in Sicily, and conſequently thriving better there; and the celebrity of the Calabrian manna, from its having been there more anciently known and cultivated. I am perſuaded that this tree would thrive in France, and produce manna in Provence."

RULES

RULES for predicting CHANGES of the WEATHER by the BAROMETER.

[From the LITERARY MAGAZINE for October 1790.]

"THE rising of the mercury prefages, in general, fair weather, and its falling, foul weather, as rain, fnow, high winds and ftorms.

"2d. In very hot weather efpecially if the wind is fouth, the falling of the mercury foretels thunder.

"3. In winter the rifing prefages froft, and in frofty weather, if it falls three or four divifions, there will follow a thaw; but if it rifes in a continued froft, fnow may be expected.

"4th. When foul weather happens foon after the falling of the mercury, expect but little of it; and the fame infer, if fair weather fucceeds fhortly after its rife.

"5th. When the mercury continues to rife for two or three days before the foul weather is over, expect a continuance of fair weather to follow.

"6th. In fair weather, when the mercury falls much and low, and continues fo for two or three days before the rain comes, then expect much wet, and probably high winds.

"7th. The mercury generally rifes very faft after great ftorms of wind, when before it was very low. Dr. Halley mentions that he once obferved it to rife an inch and a half in fix hours, after a long continued ftorm of fouth-weft wind.

"8th. The unfettled motion of the mercury indicates uncertain or changeable weather.

"The words on the plate are not ftrictly to be adhered to, though they will in general agree, for the height of the mercury does not fo much indicate the weather as its motion up and down; to know therefore whether the mercury is actually rifing or falling, obferve,

"1ft. If the furface of the mercury is convex, (ftanding high in the middle) it is then rifing.

"2d. If the furface is concave, (ftanding low in the middle) it is then falling.

"3d. If the furface is plain, or a little convex, it may be confidered as ftationary.

"4th. A fmall fhake of the tube will fometimes bring the mercury to its approaching height.

"The foregoing rules are chiefly to be depended upon; but the following are not unworthy of regard.

"1ft. The greateft heights of the mercury are on eafterly and north-eafterly winds, and its loweft ftation on foutherly or weftern winds.

"2d. A continuance of fair weather, the wind being in the north, and the mercury high or rifing, is never fucceeded by rain till the wind changes foutherly.

"3d. A continuance of rain from the fouth is fcarce ever fucceeded by fettled fair weather, before the wind changes either to the weft or fome point of the north.

"4th. If the mercury falls when the wind is full fouth, it fcarcely ever fails to be a fign of rain.

"5th. If it is going to be cold, frofty, or foggy, it rifes pretty high; but if going to be windy or tempeftuous, it will then fink very low, and as foon as the firft ftorm is over rife again apace.

"The barometer never fails to fhew the true cauſe of the alter-

ti[illegible]s

tions of the weather, and we are thereby prepared to expect them; but it may ſometimes happen, that the column of mercury will not alter its altitude agreeably to the foregoing rules, for when the atmoſphere is charged with more aqueous matter than it can diſſolve (the atmoſphere is known to be a diſſolvent medium) the ſurplus will form clouds, and thoſe produce ſhowers of rain when the mercury ſtands very high; and for the contrary reaſon, there may be ſometimes no rain when the mercury is very low. Hence it follows, that we are generally ſatisfied by the barometer what weather we may at all times probably expect, though ſometimes the contrary may happen, and a general monitor (to any wiſe man) is better than none at all.

ANTI-

ANTIQUITIES.

Hiſtorical DISQUISITION on the Game of CHESS; in a Letter from the Hon. DAINES BARRINGTON to count DE BRUHL, F. A. S.

[From the ninth Volume of the ARCHÆOLOGIA.]

"DEAR SIR,

"AS you are ſo diſtinguiſhed a player at cheſs, what I have lately gleaned with regard to the introduction of this moſt capital game into Europe cannot but be intereſting to you.

"Moſt of the treatiſes written on this ſubject have rather been calculated to teach the manner in which this game ſhould be played, than to illuſtrate its antiquities.

"From theſe, however, I muſt except Hyde in his moſt excellent Hiſtory of Eaſtern Games in which there is much oriental, as well as other learning.

"It ſeems to be generally agreed that we derive cheſs from Aſia, and moſt writers have ſuppoſed from Perſia; but I cannot give up the claim of the Chineſe as inventors, though Hyde inclines againſt it, and chiefly becauſe they have ſome additional pieces, which differ from ours, both in their form and powers. This ſingle circumſtance, however, by no means appears concluſive to me, becauſe in all countries where any game hath been of long continuance, the players will make innovations, though it remains the ſame in ſubſtance, as I ſhall be able to prove happened in Italy, where Archeſcacchiere, or Arch-cheſs, was introduced. Du Halde, however, cites a Chineſe treatiſe, by which it appears, that it is the favourite game of that country, and as ſuch is ſometimes depicted upon Chineſe paper. In Thibet alſo cheſs is much in vogue, as it is throughout Bengal and Indoſtan, with a native of which I have myſelf played, nor do the moves or rules differ materially from our own. It is therefore highly probable, that Thibet and Indoſtan received cheſs from the long civiliſed empire of China rather than from Perſia, which it might reach in its progreſs weſtward through Indoſtan.

"If this moſt intereſting game was known in Perſia whilſt Alexander, or his ſucceſſors, continued there, they would undoubtedly have introduced it into Greece, and its name would certainly have been delivered down to us, together with the pieces and their moves.

"This now brings me to conſider the Grecian claim to the invention, which ſome learned writers have carried back even to the ſiege of Troy, attributing it to Palamedes. Moſt of the paſſages relied upon in proof of this opinion, are to be found in that amazing treaſure of Greek literature, Henry Stephens's Theaſaurus, article Πεσσος, or *Pebble*.

"Having examined all theſe paſſages, I may venture to ſay that none of them relate to cheſs, becauſe there

re is not the moſt diſtant alluſion he putting the enemy's king in h a ſituation that he cannot be ex-ated, which is the great object of h player.

' But as ſo many learned writers ve laboured this point, it would haps be improper to reſt the ole refutation upon the above ntioned obſervation, and I ſhall erefore conſider ſome of the prin-al citations from which it is in-red, that cheſs was known to the eeks and Romans.

" The firſt of theſe is a line in e firſt book of the Odyſſey, where is ſaid that Penelope's ſuitors thus uſed themſelves before the gates Ulyſſes's palace. It is clear, wever, from this paſſage, that it ly proves the ſuitors played at me game with pebbles [πεσσοις], t what that game was we are total-uninformed. As it took place, wever, in the open air, it is much ore likely that it reſembled a very mmon game at every ſchool, called p-ſcot, than the ſedentary amuſe-ent of cheſs. Unfortunately for e former ſuppoſition, Athenæus his firſt book gives us from a na-ve of Ithaca (whoſe name was teſon) a very particular account f the method of playing the game f πεττεια, by Penelope's ſuitors, hich differs moſt materially from heſs, as the pieces were in number 08, inſtead of 32. The principal iece moreover (named Penelope) as placed in the vacant ſpace be-ween the two ſets, whilſt each play-r endeavoured to ſtrike Penelope wice, in which if he ſucceeded, he as ſuppoſed to have better preten-ions than the other ſuitors.

" Though cheſs is ſuppoſed to ave been known thus early in Itha-a, yet the invention of this ingeni-us game hath been commonly attri-uted to Palamedes.

" This Greek lived during the Trojan war, and was ſo renowned for his ſagacity, that almoſt every early diſcovery was aſcribed to him, inſo-much that he hath been celebrated for that moſt notable of all inven-tions, viz. the eating three meals a day.

" The chief authority, however, for his being the inventor of cheſs, is the following line from Sophocles, Εφευρε [ſc. Palamedes,] πεσσοις, κυβοις τε, τερπνον αργιας ακος.

" Agreeable, however, to the ob-ſervation before made upon the paſ-ſage, from the firſt book of the Odyſſey, nothing more can be in-ferred from this line than that he invented ſome game which was played with pebbles [πεσσοις].

" We find therefore that the whole of Palamedes's claim reſts upon what the game of πεττεια (or pebbles) was, as played by the Greeks; there being little clue from any author whom I have happened to conſult to guide us, any more than the mere name.

" I think, however, that I can diſcover why the term of πεττεια in Greek hath ſo often been rendered cheſs, whilſt the origin of the game is carried ſo far back as the time of Palamedes.

" The Grecian judges of the early times ſeem to have been very corrupt, in ſo much that Heſiod brands them with the name of δωροφαγοι, or devourers of bribes; but Palamedes, having contrived the method of voting by ballot, in ſome meaſure prevented this moſt ſhame-ful practice, whilſt the deciſion for or againſt the criminal was given by putting into an urn white or black pebbles.

Mos erat huic populo, niveis atriſque lapillis,
His damnare reos, illis abſolvere culpæ. Ovid. Met. l. xv.

And

And again:

——— et omnis
Calculus immitem demittitur ater in urnam.

"Now the game of πεττεια being played with white and black pebbles, and in proceſs of time the original propoſer of obliging the judges to paſs ſentence by ballot being forgot, Palamedes became inventor of the game πεττεια, becauſe it was played with white and black pebbles, which were alſo uſed by the judges in giving their deciſions.

"Having gone through the moſt material authorities which are to be found in the Greek writers, and having endeavoured to ſhew that theſe paſſages cannot relate to cheſs, I ſhall now conſider ſome of the principal authorities in Latin, which are relied upon for the ſame purpoſe.

"The game called πεττεια in Greek was by the Romans termed calculi or latrunculi and we have fortunately ſuch a deſcription by Ovid how it was played, that no perſon who is acquainted with the moves even at cheſs, can read it with attenſion, and conceive that it is alluded to.

Cautaque non ſtultè latronum prælia ludat
Unus cum gemino calculus hoſte perit.
Bellatorque ſuo prenſus ſine compare bellat
Æmulus, & cæptum ſæpe recurrit iter.
Reticuloque pilæ læves fundantur aperto,
Nec niſi quam tolles, ulla movenda pila eſt.
Eſt genus in totidem tenui ratione redactum
Scriptula; quot menſes lubricus annus habet.
Parva tabella capit, ternos utrimque lapillos
In quâ viciſſe eſt, continuaſſe ſuos.

Ovid. de Arte Am. l. iii. 357—366.

"I muſt confeſs that, after this very particular deſcription, I do not thoroughly comprehend how this Roman game was played, but negatively it cannot be cheſs.

"Ovid in the firſt place gives it as his general advice to the Roman ladies, that they ſhould play well at calculi or latrunculi:

Cautaque non ſtultè latronum prælia ludat.

"Now though ladies are undoubtedly capable of being great adepts at cheſs, yet I think the Roman poet would not particularly recommend as an amuſement to his female diſciples, a game which requires ſo much conſideration, and very intenſe attention.

"But, not to rely upon this obſervation, though it ſeems to deſerve ſome weight, the ſecond line, which makes it neceſſary for two pieces being employed in taking one, is not applicable to cheſs:

Unus cum gemino diſcolor hoſte perit.

By the 5th line again:

Reticuloque pilæ læves fundantur aperto.

it ſhould ſeem that all the pieces were uniform, and that they were thrown as dice out af a box.

"By the 7th and 8th line the ſquares or diviſions were but 12; at leaſt ſo I underſtand *ſcriptula*:

Eſt genus in totidem tenui ratione redactum,
Scriptula; quot menſes lubricus annus habet.

"And laſtly, by the ninth line the number of the pieces (or pebbles) were only 6, inſtead of 32:

Parva tabellacapit ternos utrimque lapillos.

"The next authority produced by thoſe who ſuppoſe that cheſs was known

vn to the Romans, is that of a
ſometimes aſcribed to Lucan;
hat it was really written by any
ne ancients ſeems rather uncer-
as Maittaire hath not given it
ce in his Corpus Poetarum Lati-
m. Be this, however, as it may,
ll cite the lines at length, as it
t to be found in every library,
muſt be allowed to contain
ger alluſions to what may be
ed cheſs than any of the other
ges which have been quoted.

e ſi fortè juvat ſtudiorum pon-
dere feſſum
on languere tamen, luſuſque
movere per atrem;
allidiore modo tabulâ variatur
aperrâ
alculus, & vitreo peraguntur
milite bella,
t niveus nigros, nunc & niger
alliget albos.
ed tibi quis non terga dedit,
quis te duce ceſſit
alculus, aut quis non periturus
perdidit hoſtem?
Ille modis acies tua dimicat ille
petentem
um fugit, ipſe rapit, longo venit
ille receſſu
ui ſtetit in ſpeculis, hic ſe com-
mittere rixæ
udet, & in prædam venientem
decipit hoſtem.
ncipites ſubit ille moras, ſimi-
liſque ligato
bligat ille duos, hic ad majora
movetur,
t citus & fractâ prorumpat in
agmina mandrâ.
nterea ſectis quamvis acerrima
ſurgunt
ælia militibus, plenâ tamen ipſe
phalange
ut etiam pauco ſpoliatâ milite
vincis,
t tibi caprivâ reſonat manus
utraque turba.

Now it is admitted that theſe lines allude to ſome game of ſkill, which ſo far agrees with that of cheſs; but it ſeems almoſt impoſſible that he who means to deſcribe this game introducing ſo many particulars, ſhould make no diſtinction either between the pieces or their moves, nor take notice of the great object of cheſs antagoniſts, to block up the adverſary's king, ſo that he hath no retreat. On the contrary the laſt line makes the concluſion of the game to conſiſt merely in the greater number of pieces which are taken:

Et tibi captivâ reſonat manus
utraque turbâ.

"Having thus endeavoured to ſhew that cheſs was neither known to the Greeks or Romans, I ſhall now deſcend to more modern authorities, which undoubtedly relate to cheſs, and can mean no other game whatſoever.

"The firſt mention which I have happened to meet with of a game that bears any affinity to ſcacchia or cheſs, is that in Du Freſne's Gloſſarium Mediæ & infimæ Græcitatis, under the article Ζαλιχιον, where he cites a paſſage alluding to it from Anna Comnena's 12th book of her Alexias, as well as others from the Byzantine hiſtorians. It is there ſtated that the Perſians call it Ζαλιχαΐς, whilſt the Conſtantinopolitan name is Σκακον.

"One of theſe authorities ſuppoſes that cheſs was received from Aſſyria, which probably may be true, but it ſhould ſeem that the Aſſyrians had learnt it from countries more to the eaſt-ward, as ſir Elijah Impey informs me that the board is ſtill called ſatringe in Bengal, which term alſo ſignifies a carpet, from its being generally chequered as the cheſs board is.

"As I ſhall however dwell rather more hereafter upon the claims of the

the more eaſtern parts of Aſia to the invention of cheſs, I ſhall now only obſerve from ſome of theſe paſſages, that it was rather a common game at Conſtantinople in the twelfth century, when Anna Comnena flouriſhed; and this I conceive will account for its introduction into Europe.

"In the firſt cruſades, before the deſtruction of the eaſtern empire, the adventurers often made a ſtay at Conſtantinople (the emperors of which were generally friendly to the Chriſtian cauſe); and thus probably became acquainted with this bewitching game; which they introduced on their return to their reſpective countries.

"With regard to the European nations, who thus had this opportunity of inſtructing themſelves in cheſs, there ſeems to be little doubt that it was firſt known to the Italians from their greater vicinity to Conſtantinople, as well as their early trade with the eaſtern ports of the Mediterranean. We therefore find by Boccace (who lived in the 14th century) that it was a moſt common amuſement at Florence, and that there was a celebrated player who (like Phillidor) could beat two antagoniſts without ſeeing either of the cheſs boards.

"If other proofs were wanting, the term of Gambat at cheſs, which hath been introduced (it is believed) into moſt European languages, is clearly of Italian origin; for, *dare il gambetto* ſignifies to throw down your adverſary in wreſtling, by placing your foot againſt his.

"Cheſs being thus introduced, continued to be the favourite game throughout Europe, till it was dropt for cards, not by their ſuperiority ſurely, but becauſe inferior players at other games had a better chance of winning. Before cards indeed had thus baniſhed cheſs, it was in ſuch vogue, that both the kings of Spain and Portugal penſioned the great players, whilſt they alſo ſtaked conſiderable ſums on the event of the game. We find therefore that three Italians ſet out from Naples for the court of Philip the Second where there was a famous player and by concealing their ſtrength won very large ſums.

"This of courſe opened every one's eyes, and it being impoſſible to know the full force of your antagoniſt, no one would play at cheſs for money, which therefore, like drafts, went into diſuſe.

"Italy however continued to produce the greateſt proficients at this game till the middle of the laſt century; and therefore Bayle, in his Hiſtorical Dictionary, hath given two articles to Boi of Syracuſe, and Gioachino Greco (commonly called the Calabrian) for their eminence at cheſs.

"Thus much with regard to Italy, from whence all Europe ſeems to have derived its knowledge of this game; and perhaps Spain may have the next claim, for having produced early players of eminence from what I have already mentioned with regard to Philip the Second having ſo much encouraged thoſe who were great adepts, and who reſorted to his court at Madrid, where they were ſure of meeting with a protector.

"As I am not aware of any deciſive proofs, which give priority to the other nations of Europe after Italy and Spain, I ſhall now endeavour to ſtate what I have been able to glean in relation to the introduction of cheſs into this iſland. And here I cannot but diſſent from Hyde's moſt learned treatiſe on the game, when he ſeems to ſuppoſe it known in England about the time

conqueſt, from the court of ex-
quer having been then firſt eſta-
liſhed. Now true it is that the
ons of the exchequer ſit with a
le before them, which is covered
h a chequered cloth; but the uſe
this cloth is, for ſettling the ac-
unts to be paſſed before this court,
ceremony of which I have once
n, the ſums being computed upon
ſquares; and if the computa-
n made by one officer is right,
other declares it to be a good ſum.
is poſſible that the chequer being
common a ſign for a public-houſe,
ay have formerly been for the
ne reaſon of charging the reckon-
g; and it is remarkable that the
ne ſign was uſed at ancient Pom-
ii, as appears by the engravings
hich are inſerted in the fourth vo-
me of the Archæologia.

" It is poſſible however that cheſs
ight be known in England in the
xt century, after the firſt cruſade
ad taken place; but I ſhould rather
ppoſe, during the 13th century,
on the return of Edward the Firſt
om the holy-land, where he con-
nued ſo long, and was attended by
many Engliſh. The Turks, who
ever change their habits, are ſtill
reat players at this game, which
uits ſo well both their ſedentary
iſpoſition and love of taciturnity.
Many of theſe were often priſoners
the Chriſtian camp, as were alſo
ne Chriſtians to the Saracens, ſo
nat there were great opportunities
f inſtruction during either of their
onfinements.

" The firſt mention which I have
net with of cheſs being known in
England, is in a MS. of Simon
Aylward, ſaid by Hyde to be in the
ibrary of Magdalen College. The
ame learned writer cites another
MS. and of Lydgate, where are the
ollowing lines.

" Was of a *Fers* ſo fortunate."
" Into a corner drive and maat,"

which are very intelligible if we ſuppoſe that the preceding line re-
lates to the piece called the king, and they will then have the following meaning, viz.

" The king was by a fortunate
" queen (of the adverſary) driven in-
" to a corner of the cheſs-board, and
" and check-mated," which of courſe concludes the game.

" Our anceſtors certainly played much at cheſs before the general introduction of cards, as no fewer than twenty-ſix Engliſh families have emblazoned cheſs boards and cheſs rooks in their arms, and it therefore muſt have been conſidered as a valuable accompliſhment. Hyde moreover ſtates, that cheſs was much played at both in Wales and Ireland, and that in the latter, eſtates had depended upon the event of a game.

" I muſt own, however, that I have ſome doubts with regard to theſe facts, as neither of theſe countries were ſcarcely civilized till the latter end of the reign of Henry the Eighth. As for Wales I doubt much whether they have a term for the game in their own language, which probably is true likewiſe in regard to the Iriſh.

" In 1474 Caxton publiſhed his book, intituled, the Game at Cheſs, which he dedicates to the duke of Clarence, and ſtates to be a tranſlation from the French: it therefore can be little doubted but that this game was not uncommon during the reign of Edward the Fourth. To this I may add, that it appears by ſir John Fenn's late curious publication, that it was an amuſement in moſt houſes of rank in the time of Richard the Third, where it is ſaid, " the lady Morley had no harpinges " or lutinges during Chriſtmaſs; but " playing at tables and cheſs."

" Cheſs being therefore not an

uncommon game during the reign of Edward the Fourth, of courſe continued to be played by our anceſtors, till cards became the more general amuſement. Sir Walter Raleigh is ſaid by Hyde to have boaſted that he could make the conteſt laſt as long as he pleaſed, from which aſſertion, however, I ſhould infer that he was no great adept, as moſt cheſs matches are decided in an hour, and perhaps never exceed two, unleſs the players take a nap between the moves. Such aſſertions, however, have deterred many from attempting to learn the game. It is alluded to likewiſe as being an amuſement in the family of the ninth earl of Northumberland, by a curious manuſcript, with the peruſal of which you have lately indulged me.

"We find the following preſumptive proof that queen Elizabeth was a player at cheſs. There had been a tilting-match before her majeſty, in which ſir Charles Blount (afterwards lord Montjoy) diſtinguiſhed himſelf ſo greatly, that the queen ſent him the next morning a cheſs-queen of gold, which was at the ſame time highly enamelled. It can ſcarcely be conceived that the queen ſhould have had ſuch a cheſs-piece in her cabinet, unleſs ſhe ſometimes played at that game.

"James the Firſt is ſuppoſed to have been a player at cheſs; but in his Εικων Βασιλικη adviſes his ſon againſt it, becauſe it is over-wiſe; which, like moſt parental inſtruction, ſeems to have been little attended to, from the magnificent bag and elegant ſet of cheſſmen, which I had the honour of lately exhibiting to the Society of Antiquaries, and which belonged to Charles the Firſt; they are now in the poſſeſſion of lord Barrington.

"In the preſent century, Stamma who was a native of Aleppo, and reſided ſome time in England as tranſlator of Oriental diſpatches to our court, publiſhed ſome ſelect games at cheſs, together with a few inſtructions, and after him Hoyle taught how to open the game, at a crown per leſſon.

"Having thus brought down to the preſent times ſuch anecdotes as I have happened to ſtumble upon with regard to cheſs-playing in England, I ſhall now paſs over to France, where there ſeem to be ſtill earlier, but faint traces of the game having been known at leaſt, but how generally is not perhaps ſo clear.

"The hiſtorian Carte gives us the following account of a cheſs-match between Henry the Firſt, before his acceſſion to the throne of England, and Lewis le Gros, ſon to Philip of France. This took place at Philip's court, and in the year 1087. Lewis loſt ſeveral games to Henry, as alſo a good deal of money; which irritated him ſo much that he threw the cheſſmen at Henry's head. This was returned by Henry's ſtriking Lewis with the board, in ſuch a manner that he was laid bleeding on the floor, and Henry would have killed his antagoniſt if his elder brother Robert had not interpoſed. This is undoubtedly a very early inſtance of cheſs being known in France; but it is much to be wiſhed that Carte had ſtated the term uſed in the Norman chronicle to which he refers, and which he hath tranſlated cheſs, as drafts is very ancient, bears a conſiderable affinity to cheſs, and equally requires a chequered board.

"The next proof of an earlier knowledge of this game in France is ſaid to be in John of Saliſbury's book De Nugis Curialium, where however, I have not been able to find it. When king John of France was made

ade priſoner at the battle of Poic-
ers, he is reported to have ſaid to
s captor, do not you know, that
cheſs a king is never taken?
hich undoubtedly muſt refer to
ieſs as it is played at preſent.

" In the reign of Charles the
ifth of France, Froiſart mentions,
at the king played at this game
ith the duke of Burgundy, whilſt
ey were for ſome time together at
oulouſe. Cheſs moreover is allud-
d to in the Romant de la Roſe, and
any of the French families bear a
ieſs-rook in their arms. It was
ertainly much played in the ſame
ingdom during the ſixteenth centu-
y; as Paſquier furniſhes the fol-
owing account of an inhabitant of
Lyons, who ſhould give up all his
apital pieces, and beat an able ad-
erſary, provided he was permitted
o have two moves for each of his
awns. He would alſo engage to
ive mate with a particular pawn,
r oblige his adverſary to mate him-
elf, with a piece that he ſhould pitch
pon.

" In the ſeventeenth century the
reatiſe intituled the Calabrian was
ranſlated from the Italian into
French, and might have contributed
o a few players having reſumed
his game, which (as with us) was
ow ſupplanted by the more general
muſement of cards. In the pre-
ent times Philidor (born at Dreux)
s clearly the moſt diſtinguiſhed
champion, inſomuch that conſider-
able ſubſcriptions have been made
o bring him over to England, from
curioſity chiefly to ſee his great ſupe-
riority. It is well known that he
can play two games againſt able ad-
verſaries, and generally beat them,
without ſeeing either of the boards.
This is certainly a moſt amazing
effort; but Villani (in his Chronicle
of Florence) gives us a ſimilar in-
ſtance in the fourteenth century, as
does another Italian writer of a Sa-
racen who flouriſhed about the ſame
time. Great cheſs players indeed
muſt neceſſarily carry in their head
ſeveral moves which are probably to
enſue, both on their own part and
that of their adverſary; and he
who, like Philidor, can do this
throughout the whole game, even
with a ſingle antagoniſt, muſt com-
monly be the victor. To this ac-
count relative to cheſs-playing in
France, it muſt be added, that monſ.
Freret informs us that there are ſe-
veral MSS. on this ſubject in the
French king's library.

" As for Germany, I have not
yet been able to pick up any parti-
culars with regard to cheſs in that
very extenſive empire, except that
a Selenus duke of Brunſwick wrote
a treatiſe on that ſubject, and
named one of his towns from it.

" In Muſcovy it is ſaid to be in
great vogue amongſt the ſhopkeep-
ers; and it is highly probable that
they received it, together with their
profeſſion of faith, from the Eaſtern
empire, whilſt the Greek ſovereigns
reſided in Conſtantinople.

" Cheſs moreover is ſuppoſed to
be alluded to in ſome verſes which
are inſerted in the ancient northern
poem of Hervarar Saga; but the
paſſage alluded to may relate to
other games which are played upon
a checquered board. Hyde indeed
informs us that it is not unknown
even in Iceland, and it certainly
would be a very convenient game
for filling up their very long nights
during the winter.

" Having dwelt ſo much upon
the countries from whence cheſs
hath been originally introduced, or
where the game hath been in conſi-
derable vogue, I ſhall conclude this
rather long diſſertation by ſome ob-
ſervations upon the names of the
pieces, in many different languages,

of which Hyde hath given a copious account.

" If I am right in my conjecture, that the game was originally Chineſe, from whence it was tranſferred to Thibet, Bengal, Indoſtan, and Perſia, it is highly probable that the pieces did not differ materially in theſe ſeveral countries, either in name or figure. When, however, the Turks had learned it from the more eaſtern inhabitants of Aſia, they of courſe made the pieces formleſs, as they underſtand the ſecond commandment in its moſt rigid and literal ſenſe. The Greeks and cruſaders on the contrary having become adepts at the game from their long continuance in Paleſtine, conceived themſelves at liberty to give what form and name they pleaſed to the pieces, which conſequently differ often in the ſeveral parts of Europe where cheſs hath been introduced. It was natural, therefore, that their principal piece ſhould be a King, both in form and name, and this ſeems to have obtained alſo in the more eaſtern parts of Aſia. In moſt of theſe governments, however, the kings are rather indolent monarchs, and conſequently this piece ſcarcely moves at all, but is merely to be defended from attacks. The emperor himſelf being thus indolent, neceſſarily requires a miniſter or general who can protect his maſter by vigorous and extenſive motions, againſt diſtant inſults, in the moſt remote parts of the board. The piece, therefore, of the greateſt powers was by the Perſians ſtyled Pherz, or General. Cheſs hath univerſally been conſidered as an engagement between two armies, and if the piece of the greateſt importance is termed the General, this alluſion is properly carried on. When the game, however, was introduced into Europe, the Chriſtians did not trouble themſelves about the Aſiatic names for the peices, and ſtyled the Pherz (or General) Queen, probably becauſe ſhe is placed next to the King, as the General was amongſt the Aſiatics; but this does not keep up ſo properly the idea of a military conflict, as when the Pherz (or General) is placed in the ſame ſituation. Another impropriety ariſes from the Pawn's becoming a Queen, when he hath reached the laſt ſquare of the adverſary's camp; as it is a ſuitable reward to the Pawn (or foot ſoldier) to make him a general, if he penetrates ſo far through the enemy's troops, but certainly no proweſs on his part can entitle him to be transformed into a queen.

" The next piece in power to the Pherz, or Queen, is that which we call ſometimes the Rook, but more commonly the Caſtle. I conceive this term to be derived from the Italians, who I have endeavoured to prove were the firſt Europeans that played at cheſs; as rocca in that language not only ſignifies a rock but a fortreſs, which in thoſe times was generally placed on ſuch an eminence:

" Sicura quaſi rocca in alto
monte."

Dante in Purg.

Hence our term at cheſs, " the King caſtles," or puts himſelf in a ſtate of ſecurity, by exchanging, in ſome meaſure places with the Caſtle which then becomes more expoſed to the enemy.

" The name of the only remaining piece that ſeems to want ſome explanation is that which we call the Biſhop; and which the French term the Fou or Fool. The reaſon of this laſt appellation ſeems to be, that as this piece ſtands on the ſides of the King and Queen, ſome wag of the times, from this, ſtyled it the Fool, becauſe anciently royal perſonages

onages were commonly thus attended, from want of other means of amuſing themſelves.

" As for the term of Biſhop, it s not ſo eaſily accounted for, as our kings or queens have never had any ſuch conſtant attendants. When ve firſt introduced this appellation s not perhaps to be ſettled with any certainty, though we know that in Caxton's time this peice was ſtyled he Elphyn. It ſhould ſeem, therefore, that the change of name took place after the Reformation. If the form indeed of the cheſs-peices which belonged to Charles I. and which I had the honour of exhibiting to the Society, is recollected, he top of this piece ſomewhat reſembles a biſhop's mitre.

" If you happen, ſir, to think that what I have ſtated in this long letter may deſerve any attention in Somerſet-place, I will beg you to tranſmit it to the ſecretary; and if you do not peruſe it with too friendly an eye, the opinion of ſo great a player at this moſt capital game cannot but carry with it the proper weight. You have indeed another title to the addreſs of this diſſertation, as you furniſhed me with ſeveral ſcarce Italian treatiſes, which I could not otherwiſe have procured, and which have thrown much light upon the inveſtigation.

I am, Sir,
With great regard,
Your moſt faithful,
Humble ſervant,

DAINES BARRINGTON."

TRANSLATION of a DISSERTATION on SATIRICAL MEDALS, addreſſed to the Society of ANTIQUARIES by Pere FRANCOIS PHILLIPPE GOURDIN, Benedictine of the Order of St. MAUR at Rouen, &c. &c.

[From the ſame Work.]

" ABOUT a century has now elapſed ſince an important queſtion aroſe among the moſt celebrated antiquaries, concerning a gold medal of the emperor Gallienus in the king of France's Cabinet. It exhibits on one ſide the head of the emperor crowned with ears of corn, with the inſcription GALLIENAE AVGVSTAE. The name of a woman over the head of an emperor conveyed to many perſons the idea of a medallic ſatire. Frederic Spanheim, Vaillant, Baudelot, Banduri, and Grainville, conceived themſelves authoriſed in adopting this opinion, inaſmuch as the emperor Julian, in his Cæſars repreſents Gallienus coming to the banquet of the gods in the habit and with the air of a woman. The legend on the reverſe, VBIQUE PAX, at a time when war deſolated all the provinces of the empire, tended admirably to confirm the opinion of theſe learned men.

" Father Hardouin, however, together with the Abbé de Vallemont, and monſ. Galland, were unwilling to perceive any ſatire whatſoever in this medal: they endeavoured to give ſeveral explanations of it, but theſe were perhaps more ingenious than ſatisfactory.

" Theſe antiquaries, and particularly Father Hardouin laid it down as a principle that the Romans were too grave a people to tolerate upon their medals jokes, which were unworthy of the majeſty of the empire.

" Upon this principle Klotzius,

contends that nō ſatirical medal whatſoever is to be found among the ancients, and that the very firſt of the kind is not of a more ancient date than the year 1512, when Louis XII. cauſed one to be ſtruck in order to revenge himſelf upon pope Julius II. who had put the kingdom of France under interdict.

"Let us examine this principle, the truth of which is founded upon incontrovertible facts, but let us at the ſame time reduce it to its juſt value, and we ſhall very ſoon perceive that the concluſion drawn from it is too general, too extenſive, and conſequently falſe and ill-founded.

"The Greeks were undoubtedly very cautious to eternize by means of medals the diſgrace of their vanquiſhed enemies. On the contrary they appear, on the authority of Diodorus Siculus, to have erected only trophies of wood as the monuments of their victories, from the apprehenſion that they would otherwiſe have been too durable.

The Romans, whoſe policy, at leaſt in the more early ages, conſiſted in extending by conqueſt the limits of the republic, and in augmenting the number of its citizens, ſeem to have behaved to the conquered with as much moderation as the Greeks. It is remarkable that, notwithſtanding the hatred and contempt which they entertained towards the Jews, nothing injurious to this nation appears upon the medals which were ſtruck in honour of Titus and Veſpaſian after the conqueſt of Jeruſalem. It is true, indeed, that upon ſeveral medals of thoſe emperors there is repreſented a ſow with its young ones, which many authors have imagined to have been with a view to inſult the Jewiſh nation. Oiſelius has expreſly ſaid ſo: "in opprobrium Judæorum poſt victoriam Judaicam Veſpaſiani et Titi imperatorum videtur hæc ſus impreſſa, quaſi Judæis exprobrans." Father Joubert is of the ſame opinion. "The hog," ſays he, "denotes Judea enſlaved; for Veſpaſian and Hadrian, in order to ſubdue the ſpirit of the Jews, compelled them to exhibit upon the gate of Jeruſalem the figure of this animal, which they held in the utmoſt deteſtation." John Bimard, in his remarks upon this work, refutes this opinion. "It would be a very difficult matter, ſays he, to cite a ſingle medal upon which a hog is repreſented. There is but this one inſtance of a ſow with its young ones, which has no connexion whatſoever with the conqueſt of Jeruſalem by Veſpaſian or Hadrian." Caſſiodorus has cleared up every doubt upon this ſubject, where he thus expreſſes himſelf: "In fronte ejus portæ quâ Beethleem egreditur ſus ſculptus in marmore, ſignificans Romanæ poteſtati ſubjacere Judæos." This animal, long before the deſtruction of Jeruſalem, was repreſented upon the Roman ſtandards, as we learn from Feſtus, "Porci effigies inter militaria ſigna quintum locum obtinebat, quia confecto bello, inter quos pax fieret, cæſo porco fœdus firmari ſolebat." So that in this point of view, the principle laid down by Father Hardouin, and by thoſe who have adopted his opinion, is abſolutely true: and it may be ſaid that the ancients have in this inſtance left the moderns a great and noble example of moderation, which the latter have not at all times ſufficiently followed.

"This ſame principle conſidered in another ſenſe will be found equally true. Neither the Roman ſenate, the municipal towns, or the colonies, ever aſſumed to themſelves the privilege of exhibiting any mark whatſoever of raillery, or malicious

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illuſion to the emperors or empreſſes, upon their coins, or even upon their particular medals, and for this reaſon, that all bodies of men owe a degree of reſpect to themſelves, while an individual ſeems in this inſtance to poſſeſs more liberty; he may do that with impunity which a body of men could not attempt without conſiderable hazard.

"It would not therefore have been adviſable for the ſenate, the municipal towns, or the colonies, to effect what princes and monarchs have ſometimes done; for the latter are on this occaſion to be conſidered as individuals, powerful indeed, and whoſe will, however ridiculous, finds authority in the flattery of courtiers: it is not ſurpriſing therefore that the effects of their hatred, revenge, pride, or other paſſions, are tranſmitted from age to age by monuments which are ſilently cenſured in their own times by men of underſtanding, and loudly proſcribed by equitable poſterity.

"Of this kind is the medal of Louis XII. againſt pope Julius II. with the inſcription, PERDAM BABILONIS NOMEN, of which an account may be ſeen in Thuanus.

"This principle being laid down, we do not think that the medals upon which the letters S. C. are found, or any other public mark of authority whatſoever, were ever intended as ſatirical medals, although they may have the appearance of being ſo.

"Nor do we believe that certain reverſes, or inſcriptions, upon authorized medals, which ſome, through a ſervile complaiſance, as Father de Grainville, ſays, conſidered as ſo many eulogies, were really looked upon, at the time when they were ſtruck, by wiſe and conſiderate men, as monuments of inſulting raillery.

"We do not even allow, in conformity to the opinion of the learned Spanheim, that theſe reverſes and inſcriptions are to be conſidered as oblique admonitions and indirect leſſons to princes, by means of which, under pretence of deſcribing them as they were, they were ſeriouſly informed what they ought to have been.

"We are perſuaded that when the praiſes beſtowed upon the emperors and empreſſes on medals which were avowed, acknowledged and authoriſed by the ſenate, municipal towns, and colonies, are flatly contradicted by all the hiſtorians, they are to be conſidered in no other light than as ſcandalous monuments of a ſhameleſs flattery.

"It is very clear that ſuch groſs falſhood could not have impoſed upon wiſe and well-informed citizens; and even thoſe men whoſe minds preſerved a vigorous independency, condemned in ſecret, and deſpiſed with concern, a body of men, who debaſed themſelves by impoſture, in flattering a tyrant who was frequently a very monſter. But no one will ſuſpect that this body without a ſoul could have ever intended to conſign to ridicule or ſacrifice to ſarcaſm the deſpot whoſe chains it ſo cordially ſubmitted to.

"Now the ſenate of Rome was in ſo abject a ſtate under many of the emperors, that it condeſcended to deify even their moſt infamous debaucheries and moſt execrable cruelties.

"That we may form an idea to what an extent the Roman ſenate and people were ſunk and degraded, it will be ſufficient to adduce proofs of the exceſſive and inſolent joy to which they abandoned themſelves on being delivered from a tyrant.

"After the death of Nero, two medals of Galba appeared. Upon the reverſe of the firſt a Victory holds

a laurel in one hand, and a cornucopiæ in the other with the inſcription VICTORIA P. R. upon that of the ſecond, the ſame inſcription VICTORIA, with a figure of Victory inſcribing upon a ſhield the letters P. R.

"The Romans, however, had atchieved no victory; but their joy was ſo great, their tranſports ſo exceſſive, that a great number of the citizens aſſumed the cap of liberty, as if Rome had recovered its ancient freedom.

"In like manner upon the aſſaſſination of Commodus, two medals of Pertinax were ſtruck, one of them repreſenting a woman ſtanding in a robe, in her right hand a crown, the ſymbol of joy as well as of victory, according to Hyginus, in her left hand a cornucopiæ with the inſcription LAETITIA TEMPORVM. COS. II. Upon the other a woman ſtanding in like manner, holding in her right hand a die, in her left a cornucopiæ, with the inſcription, LIBERATIS CIVIBVS.

"Theſe medals are without doubt injurious to the memories of Nero and Commodus, but they are in a much higher degree monuments of a ſhameful ſlavery of the Roman ſenate and people.

"Raillery and ſatire are the arms of imbecility, but not of meanneſs; they announce a ſufficient degree of courage to deſire revenge, but too great weakneſs to hazard the effects of it.

"Now with reſpect to the entire body of a nation and particularly of a republic, the ſenate, which repreſents it, is never in this ſituation. It knows no medium between ſovereign power and abſolute ſlavery. Let us examine the hiſtory of all people and of all ages, we ſhall eaſily perceive that the ſpirit which animates a national body muſt commonly incline to the extremes. Is it deſirous of appearing great? Its fierceneſs becomes pride. Does it talk of liberty? It is independence which it cheriſhes, after which it runs, it flies; and as its fear degenerates into puſillanimity, ſo its circumſpection is to be conſidered as abſolute cowardice, which it would vainly decorate with the name of prudence.

"Thus the Roman people under its conſuls ran to arms upon the leaſt diſcontent, and retired to the Aventine Hill; thus did the Roman ſenate under its emperors ſervilely kiſs the hand of the deſpot who impoſed on it a yoke of iron, and publicly congratulated Nero for having committed a parricide.

"The body of a nation then will either diſdain to arm itſelf with ſatire, or it will not have courage to do it. For men do not amuſe themſelves by turning into ridicule one whom they can cauſe to tremble, or ſhould he be able to annihilate them. I think myſelf therefore juſtified in aſſerting that every medal which hath upon it S. C. or any other mark of authority, ought not to paſs for a ſatirical one, though it may appear to be ſo; which appearance very often is nothing more than the mark of ſervile adulation.

"On the other hand, however, care muſt be taken not to conclude, with Klotzius, that there is no where exiſting any ancient medal carrying the marks of raillery and ſarcaſm.

"For it would be very bad reaſoning to conclude that becauſe neither the ſenate nor the colonies had ever ſtruck any ſatirical medal, that private perſons had never dared to do ſo.

"Satire in whatever mode it may be conveyed, is, as hath been before obſerved a ſecret and hidden means of revenge.

"I

" If we conſult hiſtory, we ſhall ſee that it was by no means unknown to private perſons at Rome.

" It is well known what ribaldry the ſoldiers of Julius Cæſar threw out in their ſongs when he entered Rome in triumph.

" Auguſtus obſerving the various writings publiſhed againſt him, commanded that the authors of them ſhould be ſought for, they having concealed themſelves under feigned names.

" Another time in full theatre they applied to him a verſe of the play, and gave him a nick name during a temporary ſcarcity.

" The taſte of this prince for precious furniture, and his love of gaming, were made the ſubjects of two epigrams, one of which was written at the foot of his ſtatue, and the other publiſhed during the war of Sicily.

" Tiberius was, by a moſt inſulting play upon his name, denominated Biberius, on account of his drunkenneſs, " Propter nimiam vini aviditatem pro Tyberio Biberius vocabatur." This Suetonius relates, and alſo that he was called Caprinus by reaſon of his frequent debaucheries in the iſland of Caprea.

" As a proof of the audacity of the people towards this prince the following lines were made upon him :

Aurea mutàſti Saturni ſæcula, Cæſar,
Incolumi nam te ferrea ſemper erunt.
Faſtidit vinum quia ſitit iſte cruorem ;
Jam bibit hunc avide quam bibit ante merum.

" For many nights together the ſtreets of Rome reſounded with nothing but the cries of thoſe who reproached him with the death of Germanicus, and even in the open theatre he was reproached with the diſſoluteneſs of his manners.

" Raillery and ſatire braved even the cruelty of Nero ; and though the weak ſenate overlooked his crimes, yet private perſons did not ſcruple to accuſe him in ſuch epigrams as theſe :

Quis neget Æneæ magna de ſtirpe Neronem :
Suſtulit hic matrem, ſuſtulit ille patrem.

" If it required intrepidity to reproach the tyrant to his face with the barbarity of his conduct, or the infamy of his manners, no leſs prudence was required in the diſperſing of the epigrams, which were made on this occaſion.

" Sometimes recourſe was had to a way leſs expoſed to the danger of diſcovery, by engraving on ſtones emblems or ſymbols, which contained indirect alluſions to the conduct or manners of emperors or empreſſes, until, become hardened by impunity, they feared not to put upon the ſtones the very names of the perſons turned to ridicule, and accompanied them often with the moſt injurious epithets.

" Such is, among many others which might be cited that precious ſtone in the Stoſch collection, at the top of which might be read MESSAL, at the bottom CLAVDI, and in the middle the word INVICTA ; in every letter of which ſome alluſion to debauchery might be diſcovered.

" In ſome cabinets may be ſeen figures clothed with the toga, having a roll or volume in their hand, but whoſe heads and feet are often thoſe of a bear or an aſs.

" If among the Romans theſe different means to ridicule thoſe in power were employed, is it likely that they would have neglected to uſe their raillery upon medals, which were more convenient to ſpread abroad theſe kinds of ſatire ? It can ſcarcely be doubted that they had

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recourse to this mode, since there are medals which bear all the marks than can be denominated satirical.

"Such are those medals called Spintrian, infamous medals struck upon the debaucheries of Tiberius in the island of Caprea, the accounts of which given by Suetonius are suspected of being exaggerated beyond the truth of history.

"The opinions concerning these Spintrian medals are extremely various; some attribute them to Tiberius, others deny that to have been the case: some look upon them to have been the coins struck for the festivals of Venus mentioned by Clemens Alexandrinus, and lastly, others are persuaded that they should be distributed at the representation of lascivious subjects in the rank of those presents which were mutually made during the Saturnalia.

"The numeral letters marked upon one side of these medals have often exercised the sagacity of the learned, and have occasioned different conjectures.

"It is more probable that they were intended to expose to the people at large the debaucheries of their prince, and that there were numbers of like theatrical tickets to circulate them more easily without suspicion, or this not succeeding, they might be thrown among the crowd. Martial (viii. Ep. 79.) says they fell from the clouds. Abbé Orlond ranks these medallions of a size between the large and middle bronze.

"To these medals we may add some others of a more decent satire.

"1. A Maximinus, on the reverse of which are the three standards of legions with this inscription: S. P. Q. R. OPTIMO PRINCIPI. Is it probable that they would give to one of the most wicked of men, the title of the best of princes, that it should be the senate and people who give him this title, and that at a time when he was not at Rome?

"2. A Salonina with these words; AUG. IN PACE, at a time when the whole empire was involved in war.

"3. Another of the same; on the reverse, Rome sitting presents a Victory to Gallienus who is standing. ROMAE AETERNAE, when all the provinces were infested by the Barbarians, and occupied by the thirty tyrants.

"We might cite the coin of Commodus, on the reverse whereof uninscribed is a figure of the emperor advancing to the right, while a figure, like Minerva, as if flying away, to the left, holds a little behind his head a crown which she seems to take off. It is remarkable that the respective position of these two figures leaves no room for the equivoque of *an dat an tollit*, in the statue of Louis XIV. in the Place des Victoires. In order to be convinced hereof we need only compare this medal with another of the same emperor, on which a Victory crowns him, and in general with all where the like type occurs.

"It would be easy to enlarge the list, and take into it the medals of Faustina inscribed PUDICITIA, those with VENERI GENETRICI and MATER CASTRORUM, to which Tristan (Comment. I. p. 556) applies that passage in Arnobius, b. iii. *Etiamne militaris Venus castrensibus flagitiis præsidet*, as so many censures of Faustina's conduct.

"But we need only examine what should be the characters of a medal to lead us to deem it satirical. They are the following.

"First, it should bear no mark of its author: for though the authors of satirical pieces have sometimes concealed themselves under respectable names, we are not to conclude that the author or engra-

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er of an injurious medal would ver have dared to put on the name f the ſenate, a municipal town, or colony.

" It ſhould never be of diffe- nt ſizes, though of different me- ls: there could be no reaſon for fferent ſizes.

" It ſhould be a very rare one: rſt, becauſe at their origin they ould be by no means common: nd, 2dly, becauſe it was the inte- ſt of the prince to ſeek them out, ad cauſe them to be deſtroyed: and dly, in ſucceeding ages its ſting eing loſt, it would be melted down ke many others.

" It ſhould alſo, at leaſt on the re- erſe, naturally preſent a malicious lluſion, or a ſtroke of raillery con- rmed by the inſcription.

" Its explanation ſhould be ſim- le, eaſy, and ſtriking, have a ſtrict greement with hiſtory, to paint the anners of him who was the ob- ect of ſatire, and be ſo eaſy to ex- lain as to offer no violence to ſenſe y an interpretation doubtful or in- oncluſive.

" Without having all theſe ſeve- al marks united by which we may iſtinguiſh it, we cannot think it rudent to aſſert that ſuch a medal s or is not a ſatirical one.

" It ſhould further be conſidered, hat the raillery, to be good, ſhould e ſeaſoned with a certain ſalt, and leaſe by being concealed. In ts own time ſuch a medal ſhould e a kind of enigma of which ome circumſtances little known rom the motto, and the circum- tances not having always been ranſmitted to us, it is hardly poſ- ible for us to gueſs them. Some- imes too the author intending to e known only by his initials con- eals his thoughts under the ambi- guity of the meaning, and the equi- vocality of the terms.

" Before we determine, we ſhould firſt be ſure that the medal is really antique, and has not been retouch- ed. The Italians have practiſed this trick to make common medals paſs for rare. Thus, ſays an En- gliſh author, a Claudius ſtruck at Antioch may be made an Otho; a Fauſtina, a Titiana; Marcus Aure- lius, a Pertinax.

" 2. We ſhould ſee if the me- dal has not been re-ſtruck. We frequently meet with coins of Fau- ſtina, Antoninus, M. Aurelius, half efficed on which the head of Poſt- humus has been ſtruck.

" 3. We ſhould conſider if the medal be not made up of two others ſoldered together.

" 4. We ſhould examine if the deviſe has not been altered, and another ſubſtituted. This kind of trick, ſays the ſame author, may be concealed with ſo much art as to impoſe on antiquaries, and require experienced eyes to detect them.

5. It is right to obſerve that af- ter Gallienus, the tyrants who uſurped the empire ſucceeded one another ſo rapidly that the mintmaſ- ters had ſcarce time to finiſh their medals, and have in more than one inſtance given the ſucceſſor the re- verſe graved for his predeceſſor: thus we have PACATOR ORBIS on the reverſe of a Marius, who reign- ed but three days.

" All theſe obſervations may be concluded by obſerving that in ſpite of the aſſertion of Klotzius, anti- quity offers more than one example of ſatirical medals, as Proſper Marchand hath very well ſhewn, and yet, allowing that it is frequent- ly ſo difficult that it is by no means ſurpriſing that the moſt able anti- quaries have been ſometimes divid- ed in opinion whether ſome particu- lar medal was or was not intended to convey a ſatirical meaning.

OBSER-

OBSERVATIONS on the ROUND TOWERS in IRELAND, by the late Reverend THOMAS HARMER, of Watesfield in Suffolk; in a Letter to the Rev. GEORGE ASHBY. B. D. F. R. S.

From the ſame Work.

REV. SIR,

"YOU doubtleſs remember the papers in the firſt volume of the Archæologia relating to thoſe antique ſlender towers which are found belonging to ſome old churches in Scotland and Ireland, but generally at ſome diſtance from them, and which, though lofty, were not capable of holding bells of any ſize. Very different ſentiments were entertained of the uſes they were deſigned for: ſome ſuppoſing they were intended for watch-towers; ſome, for places of refuge to which the people might repair on any ſudden alarm; ſome, as places of penance. The conjectures of others differed from all theſe. The enquiries of the learned, after all, terminated in uncertainty; and I found the uneaſineſs of ſuch a ſtate, without expecting ever to meet with any thing ſatisfactory upon the point.

"The only ſure way of determining the matter ſeemed to be, either ſome authentic account of the uſes now made of ſuch buildings, by ſuch as entertain the ſame, or nearly the ſame, apprehenſions of religion, which the Scotch and Iriſh did, when theſe towers were built; or a clear deſcription of the uſe formerly made of them, by the ancient hiſtorians of eſtabliſhed reputation of thoſe times, and thoſe countries. I did not expect to meet with either of theſe; but lately, running over two volumes of letters, giving an account of ſeveral foreign parts, publiſhed this year by ſignior Luſignan, a Greek, (who, after the affair of Ali Bey took refuge in England, and publiſhed an account of Ali's revolt ſome time ſince), I there found a paſſage, in an Appendix to thoſe letters, giving a deſcription of the Holy-land, which afforded me more ſatisfaction concerning theſe towers than, I confeſs, I ever expected to find.

"In that Appendix he tells us, that the brook Cedron runs along a valley S. E. from Jeruſalem; and winding with a ſerpentine courſe, between many rocky hills, ends in the Dead Sea. That about ſix miles diſtance from Jeruſalem, on each ſide of the brook, are large caves, either formed by nature, or hewed out of the ſolid rock, formerly inhabited by hermits, which grottoes continue to the end of it, about twelve or fourteen miles from Jeruſalem. That among theſe is a grotto (in which the three wiſe men are ſaid to have taken up a temporary abode in their return from Bethlehem), which, in the latter end of the 4th century, was inhabited by Theodoſius, chief of the hermits, and at length became a convent, which is now in ruins. That to the S. E. of this place, about a mile diſtant, is the preſent monaſtery of St. Sabba, built on the cliſt of a hill cloſe to the brook, ſurrounded with a ſtone-wall, 8 feet thick, and 26 high, in circumference above a mile. "On the outſide of the walls, and on the weſt, is a ſquare tower of three ſtories, and twelve yards in diameter, in which two or three hermits ſhut themſelves, who live in a very auſtere manner. On the upper ſtory is a bell

ell, which, whenever any viſiters ome from Jeruſalem, is rung to ive notice to the door keeper of ne convent for their reception. On ne ſame quarter is the gate of the onaſtery, which is kept always ocked, on account of the Arabs, ho are very troubleſome to the ſoety of this convent.

" Now by this account it appears, that the great deſign of this etached tower was to give timely otice of the approach of ſtrangers, a country very much harraſſed y the Arabs that live in it under nts, and who are very troubleome to the more ſettled inhabitants; hich is done by a bell from the pper ſtory, from whence was the oſt extenſive proſpect. But along ith this it ſeems to be put to anher uſe, being inhabited by perſons ho live in a very auſtere manner, other words doing penance. But appears not to be uſed as a place f refuge, for people to retire to in mes of danger; nor could it be anted to that purpoſe, the monaſry, which is near it, being ſo rong, and at the ſame time ſo caacious; nor could it be wanted to ll people to their devotions, here being no other perſons, it ems, to be ſummoned, but thoſe nclоſed within the walls of the conent, in this retired place.

" Satisfactory, however, as this ccount appears to be in general, a more diſtinct and particular one as ſome circumſtances being wanted, thought it might be right, as I have me little knowledge of the author f this account, to conſult him as to me circumſtances; and he very bligingly communicated to me the llowing eclairciſſements, in two tters which I received from him.

" He tells me that the mode of ving of the hermits, as he calls em, in the tower, is more ſevere, as to diet, than of thoſe in the convent, though that, I believe, you will think, ſufficiently auſtere. He had informed the world, in his printed account, that thoſe who live in the monaſtery are in number from 20 to 30. Theſe, he ſaid, " taſte victuals once a day, which, in general, is bread and pulſe, or greens boiled, without any oil and butter, except on Saturdays and Sundays; on theſe two days they are indulged with rice and butter, and ſometimes with ſalt-fiſh, as they never eat any kind of fleſh. Their drink alſo is water, except on the aforeſaid days, in which every one has half a pint of wine." But as to thoſe in the tower, the firſt letter I received from him on this ſubject, dated Sept. 11, 1788, aſſures me, that they, " who ſeldom exceed the number of three, abide there willingly, and for their proviſion have biſcuit and pulſe, which is made uſe of every other day. Their drink is water from the ciſtern, which is in the tower. Their diet and life is rather more auſtere than that of thoſe in the monaſtery, as they eat once a day, while theſe every other day: their work is prayers and meditation on ſacred books, as likewiſe is that of thoſe of the monaſtery, except a few, who employ themſelves at leiſure-hours in " copying books." Eating once every other day is certainly a greater mortification than eating once every day; and when we add to this the care of watching the approach of ſtrangers, their ſituation is conſiderably more painful than that of thoſe in the convent. Whether this ſort of penance is voluntarily inflicted on themſelves, or only voluntarily ſubmitted to, in conſequence of the chaſtiſing power of of the ſuperior of the convent, is not I think, perfectly clear from

ſignior

ſignior Luſignan's account: probably their retirement to the tower might be ſometimes owing to the one cauſe, ſometimes to the other. It muſt certainly be voluntary in one ſenſe, ſince they could have left the tower when they pleaſed.

"This tower, the letter farther informed me, is built on a rocky ground, and higher than that on which the monaſtery ſtands. Its diſtance more than 50 yards towards the W. of it.

"The height of the door of the tower belonging to St. Sabba is a circumſtance, in which it appears to agree with the Scotch and Iriſh towers; for he ſays, in this letter, the entrance to it is by a ſtone ſtair-caſe of 14 ſteps, and is diſtant from the walls of the tower about 12 feet. On the top of the ſtair-caſe is a drawbridge, which communicates with the door of the tower, to which are chains fixed on each ſide, and it is hoiſted up from the inſide of the door, and never let down except neceſſity requires.

"In his printed account he obſerves, that, "in the 7th century, the nation called Abares, a Saracen tribe, maſſacred fourteen thouſand hermits, who inhabited the banks of this brook. He enlarges the account of this matter in this letter: "The monaſtery was built in the beginning of the 6th century, as likewiſe the tower, which, I think, in former times ſerved as a guard-houſe to this convent, as the tribe of Abares were very troubleſome in that time to the ſociety. The Arabs at preſent, though troubleſome in aſking daily food from the ſociety, which yet as they obtain their requeſt, never attempt to moleſt the walls to break in." But though they do not attempt to ſcale the walls, they may be very perplexing ſtill, by intercepting the caravans that bring them corn or biſcuit, and other proviſion, and might ſeize on the religious whenever their occaſions led them beyond the walls of St. Sabba, as the Arabs about Mount Sinai are wont to behave towards the celebrated monaſtery there."

"One would be apt to think, from what is ſaid in the printed account, p. 163, that there was a bell in the upper ſtory of the tower, which was rung to give notice of the approach of ſtrangers; but Luſignan, explains the matter otherwiſe. In this letter, he ſays, that "from one of the uppermoſt windows of the towers is a wire which communicates to the monaſtery; on the end of it is a bell. When the hermits ſpy any company coming from Jeruſalem, they pull it to give notice to the ſociety to open the gate, as it is always bolted up, and they never open it except on ſimilar occaſions."

"Nor is this bell, uſed, it ſeems, for any other purpoſes, at leaſt not to call people to their devotions there, as he has told me in another letter, which I received after that of Sept. 11. "The monaſteries of St. Sabba are called to prayers by the clerk, not by the ſound of the bell, as it is not permitted in thoſe parts of the Turkiſh dominions, but by knocking at [on] a long board made on purpoſe, in which time all are gathered into the Cyriacon, or great church, and not in the chapels," except on the days of the different ſaints, to which, as he informed me in very broken Engliſh, the chapels were dedicated. The tower then is not now made uſe of for the calling a congregation to worſhip by the ſound of a bell, or any other inſtrument of muſic, or by an human voice, for which laſt purpoſe the Mohammedans built their minarets. It could not have been deſigned for ſuch a purpoſe at firſt, (which, if it was in the beginning

ng of the 6th century, was not
ly before they were over-awed
y the Mohammedan power, but
efore Mohammed introduced his
ew religion), for in such a case it
ould have been more commodi-
usly built in the middle of the con-
ent, the religious there being the
nly people to be called, the coun-
y round about being then, as it is
ow, uninhabited, except by the
ermits, who had chapels of their
wn adjoining to their cells, whose
uins may yet be seen there. It
vas on account of the solitude of
he place they chose to make their
abitation in that part of the coun-
ry.

" It is fortunate that signior Lu-
ignan has given an account of this
ower, having frequently visited the
lace when in the Holy-land, since
he does not, he tells me in these letters, recollect that he ever saw any other tower of this kind in that country, or any where else, except on Mount Athos.

" No churches, perhaps are to be found in England, that are entire, whose erection was prior to the introduction of bells, to call people to worship; but, if there should be such found, these sacred towers, commonly called steeples, may be found adjoining to, or pretty near them, either built as watch-towers, or, if in places where no dangers were apprehended, for ornament, such watch-towers having struck them as a beauty. It is certain, in in our more embellished churches, two, or three, or perhaps more of these towers have been built, and could not all be intended for the reception of bells.

ARTICLES granted to the Earl of WARWICK, on his undertaking the Offices of GUARDIAN and PRECEPTOR to King HENRY VI.

[From the Third Volume of a Collection of Original Letters written during the Reigns of HENRY VI. EDWARD IV. and RICHARD III. By Sir JOHN FENN, Knight, M. A. and F. A. S.]

" FOR the good rule, demeaning and surety of the king's person and draught of him to virtue and cunning[*knowledge*], and eschewing of any thing that might give empeachment or let thereto, or cause any charge, default, or blame, to be laid upon the earl of Warwick at any time without his desert, he, considering that peril and business of his charge about the king's person groweth so that that authority and power given to him before, sufficeth him nought without more thereto, desireth therefore these things that follow.

" 1. That considering that the charge of the rule, demeaning, and governance, and also of nurture of the king's person, resteth upon the said earl, whilst it shall like the king, and the peril, danger, and blame, if any lack or default were in any of these, the which lack or default might be caused by ungodly and unvirtuous men, if any such were about his person; he desireth therefore for the good of the king and for his own surety to have power and authority to name, ordain, and assign, and, for cause that shall be thought to him reasonable, to remove those that shall be about the king's person of what estate or condition that they be, not intending to comprehend in this desire the steward, chamberlain, treasurer, controller, nor serjeants of offices, save such as serve about the

the king's perſon and for his mouth.

" Rño. [*Reſponſio*] Anſwer, as toward the naming, ordinance and aſſignation before ſaid, it is agreed, ſo that he take in none of the four knights nor eſquires for the body, without advice of my lord of Bedford, himbeing in England, and him being out, of my lord of Glouceſter, and of the remanent of the king's council.

" 2. Item, the ſaid earl deſireth that where he ſhall have any perſon in his diſcretion ſuſpect [*ſuſpected*] of miſgovernance, and not behoveful nor expedient to be about the king, except the eſtates of the houſe, that he may put them from exerciſe and occupation of the king's ſervice, till that he ſhall mowe have ſpeech with my lord of Bedford, of Glouceſter, and with the other lords of the king's council, to that end that the default of any ſuch perſon known unto him ſhall mowe ordain thereupon as them [*they*] ſhall think expedient and behoveful.

" Anſwer, it is agreed as it is deſired.

" 3. Item, the ſaid earl deſireth that, for ſickneſs and other cauſes neceſſary and reaſonable, he may by warning to my lords of Bedford or Glouceſter, and the king's council, be and ſtand freely diſcharged of the ſaid occupation and buſineſs about the king's perſon, under the favour and good grace of the king, my lords of Bedford and Glouceſter, and other lords of the king's council.

" Anſwer, it is agreed as it is deſired.

" 4. Item, that conſidering how, bleſſed be God! the king is grown in years, in ſtature of his perſon, and alſo in conceit and knowledge of his high and royal authority and eſtate, the which naturally cauſe him, and from day to day as he groweth, ſhall cauſe him more and more to grudge with chaſtizing, and to loath it, ſo that it may reaſonably be doubted leſt he will conceive againſt the ſaid earl, or any other that will take upon him to chaſtiſe him for his defaults, diſpleaſure or indignation therefore, the which without due aſſiſtance is not eaſy to be born. It like therefore to my lord of Glouceſter and to all the lords of the king's council to promitte [*promiſe*] to the ſaid earl and aſſure him, that they ſhall firmly and truly aſſiſt him in the exerciſe of the charge and occupation that he hath about the king's perſon, namely in chaſtizing of him for his defaults, and ſupport the ſaid earl therein; and if the king at any time will conceive for that cauſe indignation againſt the ſaid earl, my ſaid lord of Glouceſter and lords ſhall do all their true diligence and power to remove the king therefrom.

" Anſwer, it is agreed as it is deſired.

" 5. Item, the ſaid earl deſireth, that foraſmuch as it ſhall be neceſſary to remove the king's perſon at divers times into ſundry places as the caſes may require, that he may have power and authority to remove the king by his diſcretion into what place him [*he*] thinketh neceſſary for the health of his body and ſurety of his perſon.

" Anſwer, it is agreed as it is deſired.

" 6. Item, ſith [*ſince*] the ſaid earl hath take upon him the governance of the king's perſon, he deſireth that all the eſtates, officers and ſervants of the king's houſe, of what eſtate and condition they be, have ſpecial commandment and charge given by my lords of Bedford, and Glouceſter, and by the lords of the king's council, that in all manner [*of*] things ſeen and adviſed by the ſaid earl's diſcretion, that is for the king's eſtate, worſhip, health, and

it, by his commandment and inance, they be attendant and ſant in accompliſhing thereof.

Anſwer, it is agreed as it is de-

7. Item, foraſmuch as the ſaid hath knowledge that in ſpeech hath been had unto the king at [*apart*] and in private, not ring the ſaid earl, nor any of knights ſet about his perſon, aſſigned by the ſaid earl, he h been ſtirred by ſome from his ning, and ſpoken to of divers ters not behoveful; the ſaid doubting the harm that might to the king, and the inconve- nce that might enſue of ſuch ech at part, if it were ſuffered, reth that in all ſpeech to be had h the king, he or one of the r knights, or ſome perſon to be gned by the ſaid earl, be preſent privy to it.

" Anſwer. This article is agreed, cepting ſuch perſons, as for nigh- s of blood, and for their eſtate, ght of reaſon to be ſuffered to ak with the king.

" 8. Item, to the intent that it y be known to the king that it oceedeth of the aſſent, advice, and reement, of my lord of Glouceſ-, and all my lords of the king's uncil, that the king be chaſtiſed r his defaults or treſpaſſes, and at for awe thereof he forbear the ore to do amiſs, and intend the ore buſily to virtue and to learn- g; the ſaid earl deſireth that my rd of Glouceſter, and my ſaid her lords of the council or great rt of them, that is to ſay, the ancellor, and treaſurer, and of erych [*every*] eſtate in the coun- cil ſpiritual and temporal ſome come to the king's preſence, and there to make to be declared to him their agreement in that behalf.

" Anſwer. When the king cometh next to London, all his council ſhall come to his preſence, and there this ſhall be declared to him.

" 9. Item, the ſaid earl, that all his days hath above all other earth- ly things deſired, and ever ſhall, to keep his truth and worſhip unble- miſhed and unhurt, and may not for all that let [*prevent*] malicious and untrue men to make informations of his perſon, ſuch as they may not, nor dare not ſtand by, nor be not true; beſeecheth therefore my lord of Glouceſter, and all my ſaid lords of the council, that if they or any of them have been informed of any thing that may be or found to his charge or default, and namely in his occupation and rule about the king's perſon, that the ſaid earl may have knowledge thereof, to the in- tent that he may anſwer thereto, and not dwell in heavy or ſiniſter conceit or opinion without his deſert, and without anſwer.

" Anſwer, it is agreed.

CROMWELL.
H. GLOUCESTRE.
J. EBOR.
P. ELIEN.
W. LINCOLN.
J. BATHEN. CANC.
J. ROFFEN.
SUFFOLK.
H. STAFFORD.
J. HUNTYNGTON.

29 November, 1432.
11 H. VI.

ARTICLES of IMPEACHMENT againſt the Duke of SUFFOLK

[From the ſame Work.]

To the king our ſovereign lord,

"SHEWETH and piteouſly complaineth your humble true obeiſant commons of this your noble realm, in this your preſent parliament, by your high authority aſſembled for the ſurety of your moſt high and royal perſon, and the welfare of this your noble realm, and of the true liege people of the ſame, that William de la Pole, duke of Suffolk, late of Ewelm, in the county of Oxford, falſely and traiterouſly hath imagined, compaſſed, purpoſed, forethought, done, and committed, divers high, great, heinous, and horrible treaſons againſt your moſt royal perſon, your crowns of your realms of England and France, your duchies of Guyenne and Normandy, and your old inheritance of your counties of Anjou and Maine, the eſtate and dignity of the ſame, and the univerſal weal and proſperity of all your true ſubjects of realms and counties in manner and form enſuing.

"Firſt, the ſaid duke the 20th day of July, the 25th year of your bleſſed reign (1447) in your city of London, in the pariſh of Sepulchre, in the ward of Faringdon infra, imagining and purpoſing falſely and traiterouſly to deſtroy your moſt royal perſon, and this your ſaid realm, then and there traiterouſly excited, counſelled, provoked, and comforted the earl of Denas [*Baſtard*] of Orleans, Bertrand, lord Preſſigny, maſter William Cuſinet, enemies to you ſovereign lord, and other your enemies, ſubjects and ambaſſadors to Charles, calling himſelf king of France, your greateſt adverſary and enemy, to move, counſel, ſtir, and provoke the ſame Charles to come into this your realm to levy, raiſe, and ma open war againſt you ſovereig lord, and all this your realm with great puiſſance and army to deſtr your moſt royal perſon, and yo true ſubjects of the ſame realm the intent to make John ſon of t ſame duke [*King*] of this your ſa realm, and to depoſe you of yo high regality thereof, the ſame du of Suffolk having then of yo grant the ward and marriage Margaret, daughter and heir John, late the duke of Somerſe purpoſing her to marry to his ſa ſon, preſuming and pretending h to be next enheritable to the crow of this your realm, for lack of iſſ of you ſovereign lord, in accon pliſhment of his ſaid traitor's pu poſe and intent, whereupon th ſame duke of Suffolk ſith the time his arreſt hath do [*cauſed*] the ſai Margaret to be married to his ſai ſon.

"Item, the ſaid duke of Suffol being moſt truſted with you, and pr vieſt of your counſel of full long tim prepenſing [*premeditating*] that you ſaid great enemy and adverſar Charles ſhould conquer and get b power and might your ſaid realm of France, duchies, and counties th 20th day of January, the 17th yea of your reign (1438) at Weſtmin ſter, in the ſhire of Middleſex, an divers other times and places withi your ſaid realm of England, falſely traiterouſly, by ſubtle means an imaginations, for great corruptio of good, taking of money, and othe exceſſive promiſes to him made b Charles, duke of Orleans your ene my, counſelled and ſteered of him ſelf only, your highneſs to enlarg and deliver out of priſon the ſame duke of Orleans enemy to you ſo-

vereign

vereign lord, and to the moſt victo-rious noble prince of bleſſed memo-ry, the king your father, whom God aſſoil! taken by him priſoner, o the intent that the ſaid Charles, calling himſelf king of France, hould recover, get, and have by alſe conqueſt, and other deceivable neans againſt you, your heirs and ucceſſors, your ſaid realm of France, uchies and counties by the wile, ubtile counſel, might, and aid, of he ſaid duke of Orleans.

" Notwithſtanding that by the aſt will and ordinance of your ſaid ather, for divers things moving is great wiſdom, contrary thereof vas adviſed and declared, by which ounſel and ſteering only of the ſaid uke of Suffolk, the ſaid duke of Orleans was ſoverd [*ſufferd*] at his iberty to depart of this your realm o the parts of France.

" Afore which departure the 1ſt day of May, the ſaid 17th year of your reign (1439) at London, in the pariſh of St. Martin, in the ward of Faringdon infra, the ſame uke of Suffolk traiterouſly adherent o the ſaid Charles, calling himſelf ing of France, then and there alſely and traiterouſly counſelled, comforted, ſteered, and provoke the aid duke of Orleans to excite and move the ſame Charles, calling himſelf king of France, your great enemy and adverſary, to make and raiſe open war againſt you in your ſaid realm of France, and duchy of Normandy, to conquer and to ob-tain falſely by force, might, and other means againſt you, your heirs and ſucceſſors, your ſaid realm of France, and duchy of Normandy, upon which adherence, counſel, and convort [*q. comfort*] of the ſaid uke of Suffolk, the ſaid Charles, calling himſelf king, hath made open war againſt you in your ſaid realm of France, and it hath attro-ched [*attracted*] unto him, and the moſt part of your duchy of Nor-mandy, and taken priſoners the full noble lords and courageous knights, the earl of Shrewſbury, and the lord Falconberg with ma-ny other nobles and people of your true lieges, to their likely final un-doing, your greateſt diſheritance, and our great lamentable loſs that ever come afore this to you, or any of your full noble progenitors, or to your true ſubjects.

" Item, where [*as*] the ſaid duke of Suffolk late was one of your ambaſſadors with others to your ſaid adverſary Charles, calling him-ſelf king of France, he above his inſtruction and power to him by you committing, promiſed to Rey-ner, king of Sicily, and Charles D'aungers his brother, your great enemies, the deliverance of Maunce and Mayne, without the aſſent and advice or knowing of others your ſaid ambaſſadors with him then ac-companied, and thereupon after his coming into this realm from the ſame ambaſſiate, in performing of his ſaid promiſe, he falſely and traiterouſly, for great rewards and lucre of good to him given by your enemies, cauſed the ſaid Reyner and Charles D'aungers to have de-liverance of Maunce and Mayne aforeſaid, to your over great diſhe-ritance and loſs irreparable, enforc-ing and enriching of your ſaid ene-mies, and greateſt mean of the loſs of your ſaid duchy of Normandy; and ſo was the ſaid duke of Suffolk falſely and traiterouſly adherent, aidant and conſortant to your great enemies and adverſaries.

" Item, the ſaid duke of Suffolk being retained with you in your wages of war, in your ſaid realm of France and duchy of Normandy, and thereby truſted by you and all your counſellors to know the privi-ty of your counſel there, and the purveyance of your armies, the de-

fence and keeping of your towns, fortreſſes, and places, ſieges, purveyance and ordinance of war in the ſame parts for you to be made, knowing all in private, and being adherent to your ſaid great enemy, calling himſelf king of France, hath often and many divers times falſely and traiterouſly diſcovered and opened to him, and to his captains, and conductors of his war, your enemies, the privity, ordinance, and proviſion of your ſaid counſel, purveyances of arms, defence keeping towns, fortreſſes, places, ſieges, and ordinance, whereby your great adverſary and enemies have gotten and taken by the means of this his treaſon and falſehood full many lordſhips, towns, caſtles, fortreſſes, and places within your ſaid realm of France, and duchy of Normandy, and letted your captains of the wars to conquer, keep, and atchieve your rightful inheritance there.

"Item, the ſaid duke of Suffolk being of your great privy council, and with you beſt truſted, knowing the ſecreneſs [*ſecrecy*] thereof and of this your realm, the 16th day of July, the 25th year of your reign (1447) at London, in the pariſh of St. Lawrence Pulteney, in the ward of Sandwick ſtreet, and at other divers times and places falſely and traiterouſly being adherent and aidant to the ſaid Charles, calling himſelf king of France, your great enemy, the ſaid 16th day, and in the pariſh of St. Lawrence aforeſaid, opened, declared, and diſcovered to the ſaid earl of Danas, baſtard of Orleans, Bertrand, lord Preſſigny, maſter William Coſinet, your enemies, ſubjects, ambaſſadors and counſellors to the ſaid Charles, calling himſelf king of France, the privities of your council, as well of this your realm for the common weal of the ſame, as for the governance and ordinance for the conqueſt, conſervation, ſafeguard, tuition of your ſaid realm of France and duchy of Normandy, at that time being in your hands, as by the ſaid Charles, calling himſelf king of France, and armies gotten and taken out of your hands.

"Item, ſith the matter firſt moved of the convention of truce and peace between you and your ſaid great enemy Charles, calling himſelf king of France, whereupon by great deliberation ye by the advice of your council have ſent many ſolemn ambaſſates to the ſame Charles for the good of peace to be had between you and this your realm, and your ſubjects in your realm of France, duchy of Normandy, and other places under your obeiſance, and the ſame Charles and his ſubjects, the ſaid duke of Suffolk being next and greateſt of your council, having knowledge of the power and authority committed to all your ambaſſadors ſent in this behalf, hath deceivably and traiterouſly by his letters and meſſages diſcovered and opened to your ſaid great enemy Charles, calling himſelf king of France, all inſtructions and informations given to your ſaid ambaſſadors afore the coming into France, whereby the effectual concord and truce, that ſhould have followed of ſuch ambaſſate between both the ſaid realms and ſubjects, have taken none effectual concluſion, but by his falſe, fraudulent, traiterous works, deeds, and deceivable imaginations, your great inheritances, ſeignories, lordſhips, towns, caſtles, fortreſſes, and poſſeſſions in your ſaid realm of France and duchy of Normandy, becauſe of his falſe meſſages, ſendings, and writings, have been taken by reſt, and gotten from you by your ſaid enemies.

"In proof of the which treaſon the ſaid duke of Suffolk, ſitting in your council, in the Star chamber in your

place of Weſtminſter, ſaid and declared openly before the lords of our council there being, that he had his place in the council houſe of the French king as he had there, and was there as well truſted as he was here, and could remove from the ſaid French king the privieſt man of his council if he would.

" Item, when in this your realm full oftentimes proviſion hath been made for divers armies to be ſent into your ſaid realm of France, duchies of Normandy and Guyenne, the ſaid duke of Suffolk, by the inſtance and means made to him by your ſaid enemies and adverſaries for great outrageous gifts and rewards of them taken, traiterouſly hath reſtrained and utterly letted the paſſage of ſuch armies in favour and ſupport of your ſaid enemies.

" Item, the ſaid duke of Suffolk as your ambaſſador between you and Charles, calling himſelf king of France, in fortifying him and increaſing of his might, hath not compriſed in truce, taken in your party the king of Arragon, your old ally and friend, neither the duke of Bretayne, but ſuffered and cauſed the ſaid duke of Bretayne to be compremiſed of the party of the ſaid Charles, as his ſubject, friend, and ally, whereby ye have been eſtranged from the good love and aſſiſtance of the ſaid king of Arragon, and thereby and by other untrue and falſe conjectures of the ſaid duke of Suffolk, the ſaid duke of Bretayne is become your enemy, and Gyles of Bretayne his brother, the which is, and of long time hath been, your true and well willed man and ſervant, put in great dureſs of priſon, and likely to be put to the death or deſtroyed for his true faith and weal that he hath to you.

" And of all treaſons and offences in all theſe ſaid articles ſpecified and contained, We your ſaid commons accuſe and impeach the ſaid William de la Pole, duke of Suffolk, and pray that this be enacted in this your high court of parliament, and thereupon to proceed in this your high court of parliament, as the matter and caſe aforeſaid requireth for the ſurety and welfare of your moſt royal perſon, and ſavation [*ſalvation*] of this your realm."

MANNERS of the TIME of CHARLES the First diſplayed in an Account of a MUSICAL MASK.

[From the Third Volume of BURNEY'S General Hiſtory of MUSIC.]

" ABout Allhollantide this year (1633), ſeverall of the principal members of the fower Innes of court, amongſt whom, ſome were ſervaunts of the king, had a deſigne that theſe Innes of court ſhould preſent their ſervice to the king and queen, and teſtify their affections to them, by the outward and ſplendid viſible teſtimony of a royall MASQUE of all the 4 ſocieties joyning together, to be by them brought to the court, as an expreſſion of their love and dutie to their majeſties.

" This was hinted att in the court and by them intimated to the chiefe of thoſe ſocieties, that it would be well taken from them, and ſome held it the more ſeaſonable, becauſe this action would manifeſt the difference of their opinion from Mr. Prynne's new learning, and ſerve to confute his Hiſtoriomaſtix againſt enterludes.

" This deſigne tooke well with

all the Innes of court, especially the younger sort of them, and in order to putt it in execution, the benchers of each society mett, and agreed to have this solemnity performed, in the noblest and most stately manner that could be invented.

"The better to effect this, it was resolved, in each house to choose two of their members whom they should judge fittest for such a busines, to be a committee, by joint assistance to carry on that affayre.

"In the middle Temple were chosen of this committee Mr. Edward Hyde and Whitelocke (the author); for the Inner Temple, sir Edward Herbert and Mr. Selden; for Lincoln's Inne, Mr. Atturney Noy, and Mr. Gerling; and for Greyes Inne, sir John Fynch, and Mr. ———.

"This committee being empowered by the benchers made severall sub-committees, one of which was to take care of the poeticall part of the busines; another of the properties of the masques and antimasquers, and other actors; another of the properties of the masquers and antimasquers, and other actors; another of the dauncing; and to me in particular was committed the whole care and charge of all the Musicke for this great masque.

"I made choice of Mr. Symon Ives, an honest and able musitian, of excellent skill in his art, and of Mr. Lawes, to compose the aiers, lessons, and songs for the masque, and to be masters of all the Musicke under me.

"I also made choice of 4 of the most excellent musitians of the Queen's Chapell, M. La Ware, M. Du Val, M Robert, and M. Mari, with divers others of forrein nations, who were most eminent in their art, not in the least neglecting my own countrymen, whose knowledge in Musicke rendered them useful in this action, to beare their part in the Musicke, which I resolved if I could to have so performed, as might excell any that ever before this time had bin in England.

"Herein I kept my purpose, causing the meetings of all the musitians to be frequent at my house in Salisbury Court; and there I have had togither att one time, of English, French, Italian, German, and other masters of Musicke, fourty lutes, besides other instruments, and voyces of the most excellent kind in consort.

"The time for presenting this masque at Whitehall was agreed to be on Candlemas night to end Christmas, and the several parts of it being brought neer to a readiness for action, Hyde and Whitelocke were sent to the lord Chamberlain, the earle of Pembroke and Montgomery, and to sir Henry Vane, the comtroller of the king's house, to advise with them, to take order about the sceane, and preparing things in the banquetting house.

"The dauncers, masquers, antimasquers, and musitians did before hand practise in the place where they were to present the masque, and the sceanes were artfully prepared (by Inigo Jones) att the lower end of the banquetting house, and all things were in readyness.

"The grand masquers were fower gentlemen of each Innes of court, most suitable for their persons, dauncing, and garbe for that buisnes, and it was ordered, that they should be drawne, in fower rich chariotts, fower masquers in each chariot, by six horses in each.

"And to prevent difference about the order of their going, it was propounded by Wh. and assented to by the committee, that the chariots should be made after the fashion of the Roman tryumphant chariots, and being of an ovall

forme

me in the ſeats, there would be difference of place in them.

" For the ſeverall colours, and om the precedence of the chariots, was agreed, that one of each uſe, of the committee, ſhould rowe the dice, and as that happen-, the ſociety to be bound of which that threw was a member.

" I threw the dice for the middle emple, and by my caſt, had the ace for the ſecond chariot, and ver and blew for my colours, hich colours, I have ever ſince kept my liveryes, and uppon all ſolemn caſions.

" Candlemas day being come, nd all things being in readyneſs, the aſquers, horſemen, muſitians, daun-ers, and all that were actors in the uiſnes, ſett forth from Ely houſe, Holborne, every one in their der, towards Whitehall, their way eing directed through Chancery-ne, and from thence through Tem-le Barre, and ſo the highway to the ourt.

" The firſt that marched were wenty footmen in ſcarlet liveries ith ſilver lace, each one having is ſword by his ſide, a baton in one and, and a torch lighted in the ther, theſe were the marſhalls en, who cleered the ſtreets, made ay, and were all about the arſhall waiting his commands.

" After them, and ſometimes in the nidſt of them, came the marſhall, Mr. Darrell, afterwards knighted by he king, an extraordinaey han-ome, proper gentleman, one of Lincoln's Inne, agreed uppon by the committee for this ſervice.

" He was mounted uppon one of he king's beſt horſes, and richeſt ſaddles, and his own habit was ex-ceeding rich and glorious, his horſe-manſhip very gallant, and, beſides his marſhall men, he had two lac-quays, who carried torches by him, and a page in livery, that went by him carrying his cloake.

" After him followed one hun-dred gentlemen of the Innes of court in very rich clothes, five and twenty choſen out of each houſe, of the moſt proper and hanſome young gentlemen of the ſocieties.

" Every one of them was gal-lantly mounted, on the beſt horſes, and with the beſt furniture, that the king's ſtable and the ſtables of all the nobility in towne could afforde, and they were forward on this occa-ſion to lend them.

" The richneſs of the apparell and furniture, glittering by the light of the multitude of torches attend-ing them, with the motion and ſtir-ring of their mettled horſes, and the many and various gay liveries of their ſervants, butt eſpecially the perſonal beauty and gallantry of the hanſome young gentlemen made the moſt glorious and ſplendid ſhow, that ever was beheld in England.

" After the horſemen came the antimaſquers, and as the horſemen had their Muſicke, about a dozen of the beſt trumpets proper for them, ſo the firſt antimaſque, being of cripples and beggars on horſe-back, had their Muſicke of keys and tonges, and the like, ſnapping and yett playing in conſort before them. Theſe beggars were mounted on the pooreſt, leaneſt jades that could be gotten out of the duſt-cartes or elſe-where, and the variety and change from ſuch noble Muſicke and gal-lant horſes as went before them, unto their pittiful Muſicke and horſes, made both of them the more pleaſing.

" After the beggars antiſmaſque came men on horſebacke playing uppon pipes, whiſtles, and inſtru-ments, ſounding notes like thoſe of birds of all ſorts, and in excellent conſort, and were followed by the antimaſque of birdes. This was an owle in an ivybuſh, with many ſe-verall ſorts of other birdes, in a cluſter about the owle-gazing as it

were upon her, theſe were little boys putt into covers of the ſhapes of thoſe birds, rarely fitted, and ſitting on ſmall horſes, with footmen going by them, having all of them torches in their hands.

" After this antimaſque came other muſitians on horſebacke playing uppon bagpipes, hornepipes, and ſuch kindof northerne Muſicke. Firſt in this antimaſque rode a fellow upon a little horſe with a great bitt in his mouth, and uppon the man's head was a bitt with headſtall and raines faſtened, and ſignified a projector, that none in the kingdome might ride their horſes, butt with ſuch bitts as hey ſhould buy of him. Another projector, who begged a patent of monopoly to feed capons with carretts, and ſeverall other projectors were in like manner perſonated, which pleaſed the ſpectators the more, becauſe by it, an information was covertly given to the king, of the unfitneſs and ridiculouſneſs of theſe projects, againſt the law, and the atturney Noy who had moſt knowledge of them, had a great hand in this antimaſque of the projectors.

" After this and ſeverall other antimaſques were paſt, there came ſixe of the chiefe muſitians on horſebacke, uppon footclothes, and in the habits of Heathen prieſts, and footmen carrying of torches by them. Then a ſumptuous chariot drawn by ſixe horſes with large plumes of feathers, in which were about a dozen perſons in ſeverall habits of of gods and goddeſſes. Then other large open chariots with muſitians in like habit, butt all with ſome variety and diſtinction. Theſe going before the grand maſquers played on excellent loude Muſicke all the way as they went.

" The chariot in which ſate the 4 grand maſquers of Grayes Inne was drawn by 4 horſes all on breaſt, courſed to their heeles, all over w cloth of tiſſue, of the colour crimſon and ſilver, huge plumes red and white feathers on th heads and buttockes, and the coac man's cap and feather, his lo coate and his very whippe a cuſhion, of the ſame ſtuffe and lour. Theſe maſkers had habi doublets, trunke-hoſe and cappes the moſt rich cloth of tiſſue, a wrought as thicke with ſilver ſpang as they could be placed, with la white ſilke ſtockings up to th trunke-hoſe, and rich ſprigges their cappes, themſelves proper a beautiful young gentlemen. On ea ſide of the chariot were 4 footm in liveries of the colour of chariot, carrying huge flambois their hands, which with the torc gave ſuch a luſtre to the paintin ſpangles and habits, that har any thing could be invented to pear more glorious.

" After this followed the ot three chariots with the grand m quers of the Middle Temple, In Temple, and Lincoln's Inne, al richly habited and attended; a as the ſixeteen grand maſquers w moſt hanſome and lovely, and equipage ſo full of ſtate and hei of gallantrye, it may be ſaid, t it never was outdone by any rep ſentation mentioned in our for glories.

" The torches and flaming h flambois, borne by the ſide of ea chariot, made it ſeem lightſome att noon day, butt more glitteri and gave a full and clear light all the ſtreets and windowes as t paſſed.

" The marche was ſlowe, in gard of their great number, b more interrupted by the multit of the ſpectators, in the ſtre beſides the windowes, and they ſeemed loth to part with ſo glori a ſpectacle.

" T

This gave opportunity to Hyde Whitelocke, who usually were ner, to take a coach, and by ther way, to gett before them hitehall, where they found the banquetting house, so crowded fayre ladyes, glistering with rich clothes, and richer jewells, with lords and gentlemen of quality, that there was scarse e for the king and queen to in. They saw that all things in readiness there, and the lord mberlein carryed them up to chamber of the beautiful and nious countess of Caernarvon daughter, whose company was nalle pleasure and refreshment.

The king and queen stood at a dowe, looking streight forward the street, to see the masque e by, and being delighted with noble bravery of it, they sent to marshall to desire that the whole w might fetch a turne about the tyeard, that their majestyes might e a double view of them; which done accordingly, and then they ghted att Whitehall gate, and e conducted to severall roomes l places prepared for them.

"The horsemen of the masque, l other gentlemen of the Innes court, sate in the gallery reserv- for them, and those of the com- ttee that were present were with m; only Hyde and Whitelocke re placed below among the gran- es, and neare the sceane, that ey might be ready to give assist- ce, if there should be occasion, and an extraordinary favour to them t that time, and in that presence.

"The king and queen and all eir noble train being come in, the asque began, and was incompar- bly performed, in the dauncing, eeches, Musicke, and sceanes; the auncers, figures, properties, the oices, instruments, songs, aiers, omposures, the words and actions where all of them exact, none fayled in their parts, and the sceanes were most curious and costly.

"The queen did the honour to some of the masquers to daunce with them herselfe, and to judge them as good dauncers as ever she sawe, and the great ladyes were very free and civill in dauncing with all the masquers as they were taken out by them.

"Thus they continued in their sports untill it was allmost morning, and then the king and queen retiring, the masquers and Innes of court gentlemen were brought to a stately banquett, and after that was dispersed, every one departed to his own quarters.

"The queen, who was so delighted with these solemnities, desired to see this show acted over again. Whereupon, an intimation being given to my lord Major of London, he invited the king and queen and the masquers to the citty, and entertained them with all state and magnificence, att Merchant Taylor's-hall. Thither marched through the citty, the same show that went to Whitehall, and the same masque was again represented in the same state and equipage as before. This also gave great contentment to their majestyes, and no less to the cittizens, especially those of the younger sort, and of the female sexe, and it was to the great honour and no less charge of the lord Major and freemen.

"After these dreames past, and these pompes vanished, all men were satisfied by the committee justly and bountifully.

"For the Musicke, which was particularly committed to my charge, I gave to Mr. Ives, and to Mr. Lawes £.100 a piece, for their rewards; for the 4 French gentlemen, the queen's servants, I thought that a handsome and liberall gratifying of them would be made known to the

the queen, their miſtris, and well taken by her. I therefore invited them one morning to a collation, att St. Dunſtan's taverne, in the great room, the oracle of Apollo, where each of them had his plate lay'd for him, covered, and the napkin by it, and when they opened their plates they found in each of them forty pices of gould, of their maſter's coyne, for the firſt diſh, and they had cauſe to be much pleaſed with this ſurpriſall.

"The reſt of the muſitians had rewards anſwerable to their parts and qualities; and the whole charge of the Muſicke came to about one thouſand pounds. The clothes of the horſemen reckoned one with another at £.100 a ſuit, att the leaſt, amounted to £.10,000. The charges of all the reſt of the maſque, which were borne by the ſocieties, were accounted to be above twenty thouſand pounds."

ACCOUNT of the GROTTOES of ISPICA.

[From M. De Non's Travels in Sicily and Malta.]

"IN the middle of this extenſive ſpace, which has the appearance of a level plain, the ground ſuddenly deſcending, diſplays a hollow winding vale, as rich and luxuriant in productions, as the reſt of the country is dry and barren. We deſcended by a dangerous path, along the perpendicular rock that ſkirts this valley, the bottom of which is one hundred feet below the level we had quitted. At the foot of the declivity is a copious fountain watering large trees, and flowing through channels hewn out of the rock; which beſtows on this ſpot, ſituated in the ruggedeſt and hotteſt part of the ſouth of Sicily, all the verdure and coolneſs of the ſummer proſpects in the Alps.

"I was enjoying the pleaſures of this valley, and caſting my eyes around to ſee every thing curious which it contained, when on examining more cloſely the ſide of that part of it which faces the ſouth, the part moſt decayed by the effects of the ſun and air, I perceived a prodigious multitude of little chambers, indented in the rock, in ſtories often or twelve feet, piled over each other. For a moment, I was in doubt whether this might not be a natural effect on the rock itſelf which had been thus honey-combed by time, from the greater or leſſer degree of ſolidity of the ſtrata; this idea, however, I ſoon abandoned, on diſcovering, on a cloſer inſpection, the impreſſion of the tool, on a ſtone of an equal hardneſs, and on finding that there were as many doors as chambers, which were all of the ſame ſize, and almoſt all of them without any communication, of the ſame form, the ſame workmanſhip, the ſame diſtributions, and evidently deſigned for the ſame purpoſe. We examined the oppoſite ſide, and on a cloſer view remarked, that it had been leſs worked and inhabited, but that, from its being more in the ſhade, it was not ſo much waſted, and that no part of the grottoes was diſcoverable, except the narrow apertures that ſerved by way of entrance, which were, in general, concealed by the obliquity of their direction. On this ſide we found intire chambers, the doorways preſerved, and a groove on each ſide of the jambs, apparently for the inhabitants to apply ſliding planks, one above the other, and two holes

fo

a croſs-bar to ſecure the faſten-
Each apartment forms a
re with obtuſe angles, eighteen
long, by ſix wide, and as many
eight. Oppoſite the entrance
hoſe of the firſt ſtory, is a ſort
niches with ſomething like a
ger in them, and an indented
for the purpoſe of faſtening
r cows. To the left of each
, is a kind of bathing hole, or
n, cut out of the rock, with an
rnal aperture, which ſeems in-
ed to let the water eſcape; and
ther opening breaſt high, for the
iſſion of light and air, when the
r was ſhut: oppoſite to this was
eſs of a few inches, where we
ſuppoſe they ſlept, and all
und the ſide walls, are notches
the purpoſe of tying up the goats,
ſuſpending their utenſils, and
es doubtleſs for pegs to ſupport
planks, which ſerved by way of
ves. There are little excava-
s likewiſe of a few inches, to con-
lamps or other ſmall furniture;
in certain places a ſort of buffet
which were incruſted a few pots,
below, a little circular platform,
h a ſmall gutter round it to let off
water: but all this ſo effaced,
originally ſo ill executed, as to
der it impoſſible to divine the uſe
them, unleſs it were for making
containing cheeſes.

'Theſe dwellings had no com-
nication, although in general,
arated only by a ſolid wall of ſix
hes, and the upper ſtory had only
hicker flooring. The little paths
ich led to the doors of the lower
y, were oblique and hidden, and
s indiſputable that no body could
unt to, or deſcend from the up-
r ſtories, but by rope ladders. I
amined this valley the length of
ree miles, and in all that way con-
ntly found the ſame excavations,
the ſame order, and ſimilarly cir-
cumſtanced. Some of them, how
ever, had a ſecond chamber, behind
the firſt, and others which communi-
cated with the upper row by a round
aperture, like a well, and holes that
ſerved doubtleſs for placing tempo-
rary ladders inſtead of ſtair-caſes. I
examined every thing within my
reach, and wherever I could ſcram-
ble, without finding any difference.
Not a ſingle ſtraight line was there,
nor a right angle, nor an arched
roof, nor a plane ſurface. In theſe
ruſtic abodes, I was filled with aſto-
niſhment at meeting with fragments
of Greek vaſes, of the greateſt de-
licacy; and in the bottom of the
valley, tombs formed out of a hol-
low ſtone, five feet and ſome inches
long, by fifteen inches wide, and
containing petrified bones; a great
quantity of fragments of vaſes of a
coarſe red earth; a piece of white
marble rudely hewn in the form of a
little pedeſtal for a buſt; two little
ſquare openings, and a ſort of oven,
four feet in diameter, by four feet
two inches in height, with a cylin-
drical roof, the only thing that
could be ſaid to have any regularity
in its ſhape.

"I found ſome of theſe retreats
ſtill inhabited, every thing put to
the ſame uſe, and the manners and
diſpoſitions of the inhabitants as ſa-
vage, as the place was wild and
ſolitary. The children made their
eſcape at my appearance, and cried
with the utmoſt violence on ſeeing
me enter their father's cabin, in
ſpite of all the ſigns of friendſhip I
could deviſe, to inſpire them with
ſome confidence. Following this
valley, we arrived at what is called
the caſtle, which is excavated in the
ſame manner in the rock. The aſ-
cent to the ſecond ſtory is by a ſtair-
caſe on the outſide, the only one to
be found in the valley. All the firſt
apartments have been laid open by
the

the fall of the rock. We may reckon eight of them in the ſituation, of which only the bottom is viſible; the fourth muſt have been made uſe of as a kitchen. All the marks of the fire made in it are ſtill diſcoverable, and a ſort of little furnace, before which are mortars hollowed out of the rock. In the eighth chamber, is a round aperture which ſerves as a ſtair-caſe; beyond that, are two ſmall cloſe rooms in the form of ſlips, the one eight feet long, the other ſeven; then an apartment of twenty-four feet by nine, with a window; and three others in a row, and on a level, communicating with each other; two more in a ſecond row, ſtill deeper in the rock, communicating with thoſe which were parallel with them; in the laſt but one, a hole deſcending to the ſtory below it, and another, communicating with that above. To the latter we were unable to get up, but their diſtribution was apparently the ſame.

"It would be by no means difficult, if we thought proper, to beſtow names upon each of theſe apartments, by calling them chambers, and antichambers, ſleeping rooms, alcove chambers, cabinets, and audience chambers; but as there is no more refinement in them than in the ordinary ones, and as all the difference conſiſts in the communication between the ground floor and the upper and lower ſtories, the moſt reaſonable conjecture we can form of this caſtle is, that, from its form and poſition, it has been the reſidence of the chief of the tribe, a tribe which muſt have been prodigiouſly numerous if we eſtimate it by the number of huts or lodges found in a valley of eight miles extent, beginning at Spaco Furno, and terminating near Modica. I again advanced a mile further into the valley without finding any change in the conſtruction of theſe retreats either with reſpect to their regularity, or number. As not one o them is the effect of chance, bu all are the work of men little remo ved from a ſtate of nature, it is im poſſible to avoid believing them t be of the very higheſt antiquity and formed perhaps by the firſt in habitants of the iſland, before the were acquainted with the commodi ouſneſs of houſes, or laboured fo any thing more than to procur themſelves a ſhelter from the in clemencies of the weather. Th aſtoniſhing number of theſe lodg ments leave not a ſhadow of dou of their having been occupied b a very numerous people, abſolute in the paſtoral ſtate, without d fence, and employing, as the greateſt effort, and moſt artful ſtr tagem of war, that of concealmen by forming intrenchments, and b rying themſelves, as I may ſa in the rock. Hiſtory gives us f the firſt inhabitants of Sicily, t Læſtrygons, a gigantic race of me whoſe origin is unknown, and t Siconians, who came from Spa It informs us, that theſe peop perpetually conteſting with ea other the plains of Leontium, a the fertile countries about Ætn the Siconians were at length ob ged to give way to the Læſtrygo who drove them off, and compell them to retire and occupy t ſouthern part. May it not ha been to the valley of Iſpica, whi is on the ſouthern ſide, that the conians retreated to conceal the ſelves in the deſart, and eſcape purſuit of their gigantic enemie But this was long before the ti of Cocalus, and the period which cities were built in the iſla It is the nature of man to imit what he has ſeen, and to endeav to procure what he has already b accuſtomed to enjoy. Were Eu

pe

s exiled into a defart, they d build a town, and frame es, more or lefs numerous, fimi- thofe in which they were born; they would never long continue habit the den of a favage.

Had the inhabitants of thefe re- s ever beheld a town of any they would have entertain- ome idea of ftraight lines, of es, and of regular forms, and fought to avail themfelves, in e excavations, of the advantages ng from thofe forms. We may ure therefore, to carry back epocha in which this val- began to be inhabited, to the t remote antiquity, and to the od when the ifland was inha- d only by paftoral tribes, or by bjugated and defenceleſs people, ced to hide themfelves in order fcape the perfecution of a favage barbarous conqueror. And being allowed, the little Gre- vafes found in the tombs, the ble pedeftal, and the kind of ularly cut ovens I have mention- would form feparate and inter- ng objects of inquiry.

"Thefe retreats then, at firft habited by a whole people, ght have been gradually aban- ned in order to build Trinacria, fmena, Argyra, Enna, Cami- , and other cities in the centre the ifland, and on the brows of cks; fuch as thofe we know re founded by the Siconians, in ich they defended themfelves inft the Læftrygons, and even ainft the Greeks, who occupied e coafts. The Greeks had fre- ent wars with this people, whom ey had reduced, but never were le entirely to fubdue; a circum- nce tending to prove, that the reek colonies in Sicily, like the efent European fettlements in merica and Afia, beftowed their tention on the riches to be acqui- red by commerce rather than on the extenfion of dominion.

"Thefe early habitations, thus left vacant, may at different peri- ods fucceffively have ferved as tem- porary places of retreat to vanquifh- ed troops, who found there a fe- cret afylum from purfuit, either in the more early ages, at the time when the Greeks invaded the ifland, or even at the period when the Ro- mans were obliged to fend, for feveral fucceeding years, great armies into Sicily againft the revolted flaves; who, after lofing all the towns which they had prevailed on to fa- vour their infurrection, ftill conti- nued to keep the field, alternately difappearing and prefenting them- felves at the moment they were thought to have been deftroyed. No fituation could be better calcu- lated to procure them fuch re- fources than thefe obfcure retreats; nor have they ceafed to be inhabited even in our day. They ftill con- tinue to afford dwellings to fome fhepherds, who, without making any change in their original form, apply them to the fame ufes, and are as wild as their priftine pof- feffors, living on milk, fruits, and cabbages, which they cultivate in the bottom of the valley, faftening their cows and goats to the fame rings, in the fame ſituations, ſleep- ing in the fame places, and exhibit- ing the fame terror at the fight of a man with a coat on, as the earlieft inhabitants may be fuppofed to have expreſſed, at the appearance of a human being with any dreſs or or- naments, to which they were then ſtrangers. Thofe of the preſent day, when they accidentally ſee travellers, look upon them as magi- cians come in ſearch of treaſures. Our guides conſequently, never quitted our draftſmen, whoſe draw- ings appeared to theſe good people, to be ſome operation of necromancy.

REA-

REASONS why LEARNING was unknown in PIKLAND, till th Thirteenth Century.

[From the Second Volume of PINKERTON's Enquiry into the Hiſtory o SCOTLAND]

" 1. THE want of learning, and of talents in the apoſtles of the Piks, may be regarded as one great cauſe of this deplorable defect. Ninian and Columba were of confined minds, and of bigotted piety, ſtrangers to ſecular learning, and to thoſe enlarged ideas which prompted Ulphilas, Patrick, and in later times the apoſtles of Scandinavia, to impart the uſe of letters, as the firſt foundation among their converts. Theſe apoſtles of the Piks, as appears from their lives, were men loſt in gloomy bigotry. Patrick underſtood the Iriſh language himſelf; while Columba was forced to uſe an interpreter among the Piks, as Adomnan tells: whereas he ought to have ſtudied their language in the very firſt place. Bollandus has obſerved that in the Welſh and Iriſh lives of ſaints, the miracles and viſions are ſo numerous and abſurd, and the whole tenor ſo unlike thoſe of other countries, that he did not know what to think of them. But this was the natural fruit of that ſtrange credulity, and weakneſs of mind, peculiar to the Celts. The lives of Ninian and of Columba ſwarm with ſuch puerile miracles, as are really impious, nay blaſphemous; while every thing that is rational, wiſe, and truly virtuous, is forgotten. Such Celtic apoſtles were not calculated to enlighten and civilize a nation: and, illiterate themſelves, could never impart literature to others.

" 2. To a late period, the only common clergy in Pikland were Iriſh, as is clear from there being no Pikiſh ſaints or churchmen to b found in hiſtory, or in ſanctology from Hyona being the ſeminary o the Pikiſh church; and from ſuc fragments of our hiſtory as remain which bear Iriſh epithets, names &c. and which were certainly writ ten by clergy, the only literati o the time. The offices of the churc were performed in Latin; nay th homilies preached in that language as appears from thoſe of Beda, an others, and as all converſant in ec cleſiaſtic hiſtory know. There wa of courſe no neceſſity for the clergy to learn the Pikiſh language. Eve in England, as appears from Beda moſt of the clergy were Iriſh; an came from Ireland and Hyona t Engliſh ſees at once, having no ne ceſſity to know the common lan guage, Latin alone being neceſſary The divine ſervice, and preachings though in Latin, it was an office o piety to attend; but ſcaree one i an audience underſtood a word, ſo that they could not inſtruct the peo ple. And the Iriſh clergy, fo their own intereſt, retained the Pik iſh church to themſelves; and neve excited Pikiſh youth to qualify them ſelves for the church, which they regarded as their own peculiar portion.

" 3. As theſe Celtic clergy were ſtrangers to the liberal ſentiments of true wiſdom, ſo they had all that cunning which is the wiſdom of folly, and all that ſelfiſhneſs which attends a narrow mind. This is evident from the conduct of Columba, and his ſucceſſors. The inſtitution of Hyona, an Iriſh ſemi-

nary

y, as ſupreme church of Pikland , and is, without example in ec- iaſtic hiſtory. The metropo- n church ought to have been eſta- hed in the heart of Pikland: and, in other countries, all means uld have been uſed to furniſh a ve clergy. Inſtead of which the churches were in utter ſub- ion to Hyona, a foreign ſemi y; and their clergy furniſhed commiſſioned from thence. us the intereſt of religion was ſa- iced to the meaneſt avarice and bition: and Hyona may be re- ded as the Rome of Pikland, porting its own power and inte- , by keeping the ſubjects of its rch in ignorance. When the rch of St. Andrew's was made ropolitan by kings Achy and ig, at the end of the ninth cen- y, it was long before a native rgy could be formed; and the ſh clergy from ſuperior opportu- ies and learning, and from an- nt veneration and cuſtom, ſtill d the common offices of the urch, even down to the twelfth thirteenth century. Intereſt, tional ſpirit, and eccleſiaſtic party, g maintained them; and they re only ſupplanted by degrees, the natives from advanced ſociety d viſiting foreign univerſities, be- n to acquire learning; and to ake off thoſe bonds of ignorance, which remote ſituation, and the fiſhneſs of the Iriſh clergy, ſo ng held them. Hyona was in- ed no longer the ſeminary; but the Iriſh clergy had been ſettled the churches of Pikland, and arried among themſelves, like the be of Levi, the only change was, at there were many Iriſh ſemina- s inſtead of one.

" 4. The local ſituation of Pik- nd was inimical to the learning of natives. Of the other extreme countries of Europe, Scandinavia was only ſeparated by a narrow ſea from Germany, a country full of ſchools, learning, and authors, before Scandinavia was converted. England and Ireland were in the ſame ſituation, with reſpect to France, another learned country. Whereas Pikland was the moſt remote corner in Europe; and leſs known of courſe than any country in it; not being mentioned by any writers on the continent during the middle ages. The learning of Ireland, ſuch as it was, the Iriſh clergy, from ſpecial motives above explained, did not impart to the Piks. That of England was intercepted by mutual enmity, and by the Danes, who, ſeizing the North of England, debarred all intercourſe.

" 5. Want of commerce was another cauſe; for a nation cannot be learned without books. After the Saracens ſeized Egypt, in the ſeventh century, manuſcripts became extremely ſcarce, as no papyrus could be had. Paper made of ſilk, and of cotton, was not invented till the eleventh century: our common paper not till the fourteenth. Parchment had never been common, as it was always dear, and only uſed on important occaſions. The books that ſwarmed in Greek and Roman times, almoſt as much as now, were written on papyrus, a grand article of Egyptian commerce. When this failed, books became extremely ſcarce, and continued ſo till paper was invented. But while, for want of books, even the learning of Greece, Italy, Germany, France, was at low ebb, it was no wonder that Pikland had none at all. England, Ireland, Scandinavia, were all frequented by foreign merchants; while the remote ſituation of Pikland, and its want of materials for commerce, ren-

rendered it unviſited, and almoſt unknown.

" 6. The warlike ſpirit of the Piks, and continual occaſions for its exertion, were inimical to learning. In Ireland, at the time clerical learning flouriſhed there, domeſtic wars abounded; but the parties reverenced the clergy, who enjoyed quiet among theſe commotions. Very different was the caſe in the ninth century, when foreign enemies ravaging Ireland, baniſhed all its learning at once. But Pikland, not being a detached country, like Ireland, but acting on perpetual offence or defence againſt a foreign foe, was almoſt in conſtant war, or preparation; a ſtate totally inimical to learning.

" 7. The natural poverty of the country precluded learning, as it did other advantages. For learning belongs to eaſe; and in a poor country and early ſociety conjoined, conſtant labour muſt be employed to procure ſubſiſtence. Even the church was poor, and had not above three grand eſtabliſhments, Abernethy, Dunkeld, and St. Andrew's: whereas in Ireland the eſtabliſhments, from the earlieſt period, were very numerous, as the fertility of the country invited. Among ſo few churchmen, it is no wonder that learning was ſcarce; as the chance was ſo much ſmaller than in other countries. Hence, even among the Iriſh clergy of Pikland, very few had any talents or learning. The whole inhabitants of Pikland did not exceed a million; for they do not exceed that number now, and the population is ſurely increaſed. The chance of one man of learning ariſing in that number, at a time when Germany, France, England, produced but one or two, was next to nothing; and it is no wonder that it never took place; but on the contrary a miracle muſt have happened, if it had.

" 8. The northern Goths of Scandinavia, of whom the Piks were a branch, were long remarkable for contempt of letters; and regarded them as one of the effeminate purſuits of eaſe, beneath the notice of warriors. This contempt had a greater effect than indocility could have had; and was radically inimical to learning: for what is deſpiſed can never be an object of purſuit. The plain ſenſe of theſe people was indeed remarkably ſtrong and acute; and it is no wonder that the abſurd ſuperſtition, and fooliſh reading, of the clergy, during the darker ages, met utter ſcorn from their ſevere wiſdom. Ragnar Lodbrog's expreſſion of a maſs of weapons, ſhews the greateſt contempt of the then Chriſtian ſuperſtition, and its profeſſors. And as they deſpiſed the literati of the time, ſo they ſcorned letters, and regarded arms as the ſole object of purſuit.

" 9. At the time the Scandinavians began their ravages in Europe, the Iriſh clergy of Hyona were the ſole churchmen in Pikland; and keeped the people in ignorance, as above explained. But thoſe ravages, ſo inimical to French and Engliſh literature, totally extinguiſhed the Iriſh; ſo that even the ſole fountain, whence clerical learning could have flowed into Pikland, was dried up. And Pikland itſelf was repeatedly ravaged by the Scandinavians, in the ninth century; which muſt have checked learning, if any was then beginning to bud. The Iriſh clergy, after this, produced no Cuminius or Adomnan: Nor, till the thirteenth century,

was

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i we had; ſave a few liſts
ur kings, untinctured with
eading, except that of Nen-
and Iſidorus. The ravages of
candinavians may therefore be
led as a grand cauſe, that de-
the commencement of litera-
n Pikland to a late period: as
cauſes above-mentioned pre-
vented its taking place before thoſe
ravages.

"Almoſt any of theſe cauſes may ſufficiently account for the very late appearance of learning among the Piks, or preſent Scots; but when all are jointly conſidered, it is believed they will be found fully ſatisfactory."

MISCELLANEOUS PAPERS.

EXPERIMENTS on the MANAGEMENT and proper FOOD of SILK-WORMS

[Extracted from the rev. Mr. SWAYNE's Letters to Mr. MORE, in the Seventh Volume of the Tranſactions of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce.]

"IT has been, I believe, the uſual method in this country, to make receptacles for the worms when they ſhow ſymptoms of ſpinning, by pinning together papers in the ſhape of inverted cones, with broad baſes. This method, where there are many worms, is exceedingly tedious, waſtes much paper, and uſes a large number of pins: beſides, as the ſilk-worm always weaves an outer covering or defenſive web, before it begins the cocoon or oval ball, I apprehended that it cauſed a needleſs waſte of ſilk in forming the broad web at the top. The method I make uſe of is, to roll a ſmall piece of paper (an uncut octavo leaf, ſuch as that of an old magazine is ſufficient for three), round my fore finger and to give it a twiſt at the bottom; which is done with the utmoſt expedition, and gives no occaſion for the uſe of pins. Theſe rolled paper caſes being likewiſe of a form more nearly reſembling that of a cocoon, with a much narrower opening on the top than the others, takes away the neceſſity of waſting much ſilk in the outer web, and conſequently leaves more to be employed in forming the ball. The ſilk is readily taken out of theſe caſes by untwiſting the bottom; and if this be done with moderate care, and the papers are preſerved, they will ſerve ſeveral times for the like purpoſe.

"It is poſſible theſe minute and ſeemingly trifling directions may be looked upon by many as utterly unworthy of attention: my opinion is different; – even in eſtabliſhed manufactories, and much more in introducing a new one, whatever tends though in a ſmall degree, to expedite the buſineſs and to diminiſh the expence, is not, I conceive, to be eſteemed of inconſiderable importance."

"By attempting to keep a larger ſtock laſt ſeaſon than I could get ſufficient food for, I loſt great numbers and greatly injured the remainder; there being only one mulberry-tree in this place from which I could procure leaves, my little family was often, through neceſſity, ſtinted in their food; and I have found, when that has been the caſe in any conſiderable degree, the worms will never thrive afterwards. The above diſaſter will make me cautious how I attempt to breed many worms in future, till I can be certain of obtaining a ſufficient maintenance for them; yet I am not without a proſpect that this obſtacle to my wiſhes will not long remain, having procured from Mr. Malcolm's nurſery the laſt ſpring eight white mulberry-trees, two of them eighteen or twenty

wenty feet in height, and moſt of he others eight or ten feet. I have kewiſe procured ſeveral ſmall ſtools f the black mulberry; and I mean o give all the attention to the raiſ-ig and propagating of both kinds which is conſiſtent with a proper egard to purſuits of greater mo-ient. When I received the mul-erry trees from London, I had rea-on to fear, from the length of time hey had been out of the ground which could not have been leſs han a fortnight), and from the ry appearance of their roots, that ſhould not have had one of them row; but by proper care in plant-ig, and frequently watering them n the ſummer, I have loſt only ne.

" Being poſſeſſed of this trea-ure, I was deſirous of making an xperiment to aſcertain which ſpe-ies of mulberry was moſt agreeable o the ſilk-worm, and moſt produc-ive of ſilk. With this view, June 2, 1787, I took off a few worms rom the paper of eggs, where they were then juſt hatched upon a leaf f each ſpecies of the mulberry, and nearly a like number on a lettuce eaf. Theſe leaves, with the worms on them, were laid ſeparately on hree ſmall paper pans, which pans were placed on one of the paper-ottomed drawers in the frames, and ach paper marked.

" No. 1. contained the white mulberry leaf;

" No. 2. the black;

" No. 3. the lettuce.

" The worms in the pans mark-ed No. 1. and 2. were ever after conſtantly fed with the ſame kind of food which they had firſt taſted; thoſe of No. 3. were fed with lettuce leaves till they had caſt their firſt ſkins. and afterwards with black mulberry leaves: the worms of No. 3. appeared to grow faſter at firſt than thoſe of either of the others, they were likewiſe of a paler colour When the worms ſhowed ſigns of their being about to ſpin, they were put each worm into a paper caſe, marked with the number of the pan from which it was taken. As ſoon as I found they had all completed their web, and were changed into the chryſalis ſtate, after taking them all out of the paper caſes in which they had ſpun, I ſelected twelve of the largeſt and fineſt of the cocoons of each ſort, and weighed each dozen ſeparately: the twelve cocoons of No. 1. weighed ſeven penny-weights two grains; thoſe of No. 2. weighed ſix pennyweights three grains; thoſe of No. 3. ſix penny-weights.

" From this experiment, as far as it goes, the white mulberry appears in the moſt favourable light; yet I would not be underſtood to inſinuate that I think this experiment at all deciſive: a ſingle experiment generally ſpeaking, proves nothing; beſides, it ſhould have been carried further; the ſilk ſhould have been carefully reeled off the cocoons, and the weight of that taken ſeparately as well as the comparative ſtrength of it proved.

" As a counter-balance to the apparent ſuperiority of the white mulberry, it is poſſible that chryſalides ſelected of No. 1. might have been moſtly females, or proportionably more ſo than thoſe of the other numbers; and then (the females) being always larger than the males, the difference in weight had been in the worms, and not in the ſilk. On the contrary, as an additional circumſtance in favour of the white mulberry, it may with reaſon be alledged, that the leaves, having been taken from trees which had been ſo lately planted, and which were kept alive by much watering,

by mere force (as it may be called), could not be ſuppoſed to contain their proper juices, at leaſt in ſufficient abundance. My principal reaſon for not proceeding with the experiment, as above directed, was, that the cocoons of No. 1. were ſo viſibly the fineſt I had, and at the ſame time having but few of them, I was willing to ſave the chryſalides contained in them, for breeding; and that they might not be at all injured, I thought it moſt adviſable to ſuffer them to remain in their ſilken-tombs, and to make their way out thence in the method they are taught by nature: this method I believe, is conſtantly termed, eating their way out.

"The term is improper; they are ſo far from eating their way out that I have reaſon to believe, when the ſilk is of its due ſtrength, they never interrupt the continuance of the thread. As ſoon as the moth has burſt from the ſhell of the chryſalis, and is fully formed, it ejects from its mouth a liquid, which, being abſorbed by that part of the cocoon oppoſite, diſſolves the natural gluten by which the threads were made to adhere together; when the inſect, with its hooked feet, draws the thread aſide: by this means, and butting its head forward, it gradually makes an opening, ſufficient to force itſelf through. The elaſticity of the ſilk, as the moths creep through, has the effect of preſſing out a kind of red meconium, no doubt greatly to their advantage, ſince I have obſerved that thoſe which have been taken out of the cocoons before their laſt metamorphoſis, have got rid of it with much difficulty.

"I have taken the pains to unravel ſeveral of the cocoons after the inſects had left them; but I never could find that the thread was diſcontinued in any one inſtance, unleſs where I broke it myſelf: it was often ſo much entangled that I could not proceed; yet ſometimes I have wound off nearly the whole web. Whenever this is attempted it muſt be with the ſilk dry, as it will be immediately entangled when put in water.

"It has been remarked, "that in Italy the chryſalides ſoon come to life; and it is neceſſary to deſtroy them, leſt, by eating their way out, they ſhould injure the ſilk; and, to effect this, they are placed in heated ovens: that in our climate, where every progreſſion is ſlower there is ſufficient time to wind off the ſilk, without killing the chryſalis; that the warmth of the ovens, and the length of time neceſſary to keep them there, muſt greatly injure the ſilk. But this is not all; for in Italy they ſuffer the moth to eat its way out of the largeſt cones, in order to have eggs from the moſt healthy, and thereby loſe all the ſilk in thoſe cones. That in this country the ſilk may be gathered, as well as the moths preſerved; and that thus we poſſeſs two ſtriking advantages, which amply compenſate for the loſs of many others."

"That the inhabitants of this iſland would poſſeſs ſome advantages in the raiſing of raw ſilk, which thoſe of many of the ſilk countries do not poſſeſs, I have not the leaſt doubt. I am informed by Arthur Young, eſq. who was in France the laſt ſummer, that, even in the ſouth of France, the froſts are the great enemies which kill the mulberry leaves, after they are out. As this is ſcarcely ever the caſe with us, I conſider this as one very great advantage; and a freedom from lightning, and from ſultry and intenſe heats, which are allowed on all ſides to be exceedingly prejudicial to ſilk-worms,

worms, I eſteem to be another. There may be ſome few more. But with all due deference to the ingenious remarks above quoted, I muſt beg leave to ſay, that I cannot think the advantages therein mentioned, to be very conſiderable: one reaſon may be deduced from the above, why it would be moſt adviſable to ſuffer thoſe inſects which are intended for breeding, to proceed in their own natural way, without any interruption or impediment, as they do in Italy: another reaſon is, that I have conſtantly obſerved that thoſe chryſalides which have been taken out of the cocoons before their laſt change, and have been placed in bran, cotton, or the like, have always had their ſhells conſiderably dried; and that the moths have had great difficulty in caſting them off, and have appeared much weakened by it.

"The great point of utility in introducing the buſineſs of raiſing raw ſilk, would be to find employment for women and children in the winter months, and in bad weather, when they could not work in the open air; and not to crowd the ſummer months with more employment, which are already too much crowded. Add to this, that, were no more ſilk to be raiſed than what could be reeled off between the caterpillar and the moth ſtate of the inſect, it would ſeem to be an object ſcarcely worth attending to.

"That the dry heat of the ovens is often injurious to the ſilk, I can readily conceive; for though it be poſſible to regulate the heat, by means of thermometers, yet this I apprehend, is ſeldom, perhaps never, done. But the mere killing of the worms is not the ſole intention in placing the cocoons in heated ovens and ſtoves; for, were the inſects to be inſtantaneouſly killed, (ſuppoſe by the electric ſhock, the fumes of burning ſulphur, or the like) and not to be quickly placed in ſome very drying ſituation, putrefaction, would immediately enſue and the ſilk would inevitably be ſpoiled.

"One of the moſt definite degrees of heat known in chemiſtry is that of boiling water. This is a heat which the ſilk muſt more than once be expoſed to (in dying, &c.) before it becomes an article of apparel; conſequently is a heat which it can ſuſtain without injury.

"Could this heat be applied ſo as to kill the chryſalides, and the cocoons be immediately placed in warm dry rooms, it would ſeem to preclude the neceſſity of placing them in hot ovens.

Miſs Rhodes has repreſented this heat to be inſufficient for the purpoſe. An experiment which I made laſt ſummer, ſeems to ſpeak a different language: having placed upwards of one hundred cocoons on a piece of netting, ſtretched on a ſmall ſquare frame, I covered them with one of the gauze-bottomed drawers above mentioned; and, having poured out a tea-kettle of boiling water into a wooden veſſel, I immediately immerſed the frame with the cocoons in the water, and continued it in that ſituation exactly three minutes; I then drew it out, and ſuſpended it from the cieling in the kitchen, at no great diſtance from the fire; it was ſuffered to remain there till it was judged that the cocoons, as well as the inſects contained in them, were perfectly dry; they were then removed.

"Not one of theſe cocoons has been perforated by its entombed inſect; ſeveral of them have been opened, and each chryſalis has been found to be a mere huſk. It ought to be noticed, that the water, by

paſſing through the cool air, and being received in a cold veſſel, was conſiderably below a boiling water heat."

"I believe I mentioned in my laſt, that I had got a frame, ſurrounded with a coarſe canvas (ſuch as is frequently made uſe of for window-blinds), in which I intended to repeat an attempt which I had before made to rear ſome worms in the open air. To thoſe who have imbibed a notion that the ſilk-worm is a very tender inſect, and that this climate is utterly incongenial with its delicate conſtitution, ſuch an attempt will doubtleſs appear only as no other than an idle dream of a viſionary projector.

"From having ſome years ago reared numbers of our native inſects of the ſame order (*inſecta lepidoptera*) with the ſilk-worm, I have convinced myſelf that the ſilk-worm is not of a more tender nature, and can be reared with leſs difficulty, than moſt of the inſects of the ſame kind, in the breeding of which I have had any experience: and as far as I can rely upon the ſucceſs of one experiment, I am equally ſatisfied that the ſcheme of rearing them in ſuch frames as I have before mentioned, placed in the open air, is exceedingly feaſible.

"In the latter end of laſt May (the 28th) I put a number of ſilk-worms (fewer than an hundred) which were then juſt hatched, in the frame, and placed it in my garden; the weather at that time was cold and windy: in the evening the frame was removed into an out-houſe, and returned to the garden next morning; this was continued for a night or two, for a few nights longer. It was covered with a baſs mat, and afterwards was ſuffered to remain in the garden by day and night, without any covering. At the time I placed theſe in the garden, I placed others (a ſomewhat larger number) in the dwelling-houſe: both colonies were fed with the ſame kind of food, which was moſtly the leaves of the white mulberry, at the ſame time, and in a proportionable quantity; and were treated alike in every particular: during their growth there was no diſcernible difference between them; they went through their ſeveral changes, and began to ſpin about the ſame period; indeed the firſt that ſpun was in the frame in the garden.

"The weather, during the laſt three weeks was very wet, and during the whole time, unſeaſonably cold: as ſoon as I obſerved one of them in the frame begin to ſpin, I took the the frame within doors, as the weather was ſo wet that, had it remained in its former ſituation, I ſhould not have been able to have attended the ſpinning of the worms without great inconvenience.

"The ſilk I have incloſed, is the production of the worms which were bred both without and within doors. No. 1. and 2. is the ſilk of thoſe bred in the garden—No. 3. and 4. of thoſe in the houſe.

"The different appearance of the orange-coloured ſilk, No. 3. is owing to a different management, prior to, and in the reeling it. It is the ſilk of thoſe cocoons, the chryſalides of which I preſerved for breeding, and ſuffered to eſcape from them in their own natural way: it was firſt wound off on bobbins ſingly, and afterwards reeled off from thoſe bobbins, and in the reeling paſſed through warm water; but the ſilk not being any length of time in the water, and not being ſo much ſtretched on the reel, did not take ſo gloſſy an appearance from the operation.

"I had the ſatisfaction of wind-

ing

g off more than one of these co-
oons, without once breaking the
read, or finding it discontinued.
he reason why I chose the worms
hich spun the orange-coloured
ocoons, bred within doors, for con-
nuing the breed, was, that I ori-
nally intended to send you the
k of all the worms bred in the
rden, and had reeled it off for
at purpose; and I preferred the
k of that colour, as thinking it
ronger than the straw-coloured.
t that time I had it not in my
oughts to reel off the other at all.

"The worms which I first pos-
sed, spun invariably a straw-co-
ured silk. By chance I had a
ocoon of an orange colour given
e, the moth from which happen-
l to be a female; from this, with
e coition of a straw-coloured male,
ere propagated all that I have of
e orange colour. It should seem,
erefore, that the colour of the
k depends chiefly upon the female
orm.

"One of my white mulberry
ees, the last season, made amazing
oots; some more than five feet,
d many more than four feet in
ngth. I have used great atten-
on, and made several experiments
make the cuttings of the mul-
rry-trees grow, but hitherto with-
t success. I have lately heard
at an old bough takes root much
eer than a one-year's shoot. I
ve procured a considerable quan-
y of seed, the late season, from
ees in this neighbourhood; and
ve a good friend to procure me
me in Oxford, where the soil is
eculiarly favourable to the growth
mulberry-trees: these I mean to
sow the ensuing spring: whether
they will grow, or not, time will
discover; but at present I have great
hopes that they will, as they appear
quite perfect, and are in good pre-
servation.

"What has been said respecting
the leaves of the mulberry-tree be-
ing free from the depredations of
every indigenous insect, must be
confined to the black mulberry. The
first summer after I had planted my
white mulberry-trees, I found that
the leaves were many of them de-
voured by night. It was a long
time before I discovered the plun-
derers: at length they proved to be
earwigs, which in that season, were
uncommonly numerous: yet, even
then, the black mulberry-leaves were
untouched. The white mulberry
is certainly of a more delicate frame
and texture than the black; parti-
cularly in the bark, which is very
liable to canker: nor do I observe
that it is much earlier in leafing
than the black. The leaves are un-
doubtedly more delicate, and free
from that roughness, or lanugo, in
which the leaves of the other are
enveloped; and, perhaps for this
reason, are more palatable to the
worms when very young; but then,
as they are much less substantial than
those of the black, they get dry
much sooner, and consequently re-
quire to be oftener renewed.

"In a plantation it would be
advisable to have a few of these,
if it were only for the take of
variety: but, upon the whole, the
black mulberry-tree is, in my
opinion, for the purpose of feeding
silk-worms, by much the most pre-
ferable."

ADVANTAGES which would attend the INSTITUTION of LAZARETTOS in ENGLAND, in a Letter from the ENGLISH MERCHANTS at SMYRNA, to the late Mr. HOWARD.]

[From Mr. HOWARD's Account of the principal Lazarettos in EUROPE, &c.

"WE flatter ourſelves that no apology is neceſſary for troubling you with this addreſs, calculated to convey to you every information we are maſters of, which we think may be of uſe to you in the attainment of the laudable end you have in view, to forward the intereſts of ſociety in general, and thoſe of the nation in particular.

"We underſtand that when the building of a lazaretto was agitated in England ſome time ago, the chief objection to it was the great expence it would be to the nation, which did not reap any adequate advantages by the Turkey trade. We are as much perſuaded that the want of a lazaretto in England has been the cauſe of the Turkey trade not being, till now, more worth the notice of government, as that the eſtabliſhment of one will render it an object of great importance to the nation. It will not only be productive of the immediate advantages which flow from an extenſive and flouriſhing trade, but will free the kingdom from the riſk it now runs of the plague being introduced into it. That a lazaretto will be productive of theſe two ends, we hope to prove to your ſatisfaction by what we are now going to lay before you.

"It is enacted by act of parliament that when any veſſel loads for England, in any of the ports of Turkey, and departs with a foul bill of health, ſuch veſſels ſhall perform quarantine at Malta, Leghorn, or Venice. The numberleſs hardſhips which this ſubjects our export trade to, amount almoſt to a total ſuppreſſion of it. A ſingle accident of the plague in this large city and its environs, or one brought from any other infected place, though this city may be entirely free from it, obliges the conſul to iſſue foul bills of health. As no information, to be depended upon, can be procured from the Turks concerning the plague, and as the Greek nation is the next moſt numerous one in the city, the conſuls apply to the deputies of it for information, when there are any reports of the plague, and, according to the anſwer they receive, they either iſſue clean or foul bills of health. It often happens that the Greeks themſelves are authors of falſe reports concerning the plague, and that their deputies inform the conſuls of accidents having happened in their nation, when in reality there is no plague in the city or its environs. The motive which induces them to give this falſe information is obvious. The Greeks carry on three-fourths of the Dutch as well as Italian trade; it is therefore their intereſt (and unfortunately that of every other nation) to depreſs ours as much as poſſible; and there is not a more effectual method of doing this than by obliging our veſſels to go to perform a long and expenſive quarantine in the ports of the Mediterranean, by which means the cottons, which form their principal loading, as well as the chief article of both trades,

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re no leſs than *ſeven months* on their vay to London. This long interval gives the Greeks time to load heir ſhips; and, as they perform very ſhort quarantine in Holland (of the nature of which we ſhall peak more particularly hereafter) hey ſupply our markets by copious exportations of the cottons that were oaded here at the ſame time with ours, two or three months before our veſſels can reach England. It s by this means that more than half the Turkey cottons conſumed n England are ſupplied by the Dutch to the great ſupport of their Turkey trade, and the ruin of ours; and it is by this means that, whilſt our trade is ſacrificed by rigorous quarantine laws, to conſiderations of national ſafety, the plague may be introduced into the kingdom by the Dutch. To prove that this riſk actually exiſts, and in no ſmall degree, we need only inform you of the method in which Dutch veſſels, loaded here in the *height* of the plague, perform quarantine in Holland. On their arrival at Helvoetſluys, a doctor is ſent on board of them to viſit the crew, which he does by feeling their pulſe; after which he immediately returns to the ſhore, and reports the ſtate of their health: three or four days after this, the veſſel is ordered to a place at a diſtance from the reſt of the ſhipping, and two or three lighters are ſent along ſide, into which are only emptied the cottons that are in the 'tween decks, and the hatches are opened on pretence of airing the goods in the hold, which form the principal part of the cargo, and which remain untouched till the forty days are over; when they are unloaded into the merchants warehouſes, or into the veſſels deſtined to tranſport them to England. Thus you ſee, ſir, that one part of the goods perform a ſlovenly quarantine, and the reſt may be ſaid to perform none at all; for, as the air cannot penetrate into holds ſo cloſely ſtowed with cottons as they always are, the forty days they remain in the veſſel after her arrival can only be conſidered as forty days added to her paſſage. In this manner cottons are brought into England that have undergone no purification at all; and if it ſhould happen that they are infected, nothing is more eaſy than the infection's being introduced into England by their means. Engliſh veſſels can only begin to load here direct for England forty days after the laſt accident of the plague; and if any accident happen whilſt they are in loading, they muſt either go away immediately with the few goods they may have on board, or elſe they muſt wait in port, on a cruel uncertainty, forty days after the laſt reported accident, whether real or invented, if they do not prefer the hard alternative of continuing their loading, and going away with a foul bill of health, to perform quarantine in ſome of the lazarettos in the the Mediterranean; on the contrary, Dutch veſſels may be three months in loading, they may have taken the greateſt part of their cargo in whilſt the plague raged, and, notwithſtanding this, if they are in port forty days after the laſt accident, clean bills of health are granted them, in virtue of which they only perform twenty-one days quarantine in the ſlovenly manner above mentioned.

"Our government has reaſonably laid a quarantine on cottons imported into England from Holland; but we underſtand that when this has been the caſe, the quarantine in Holland, ſuch as it is, has been curtailed by the connivance of thoſe who

who ſhould regulate it; by this manœuvre, the end of our government in laying a quarantine, is entirely defeated. This total diſregard of ſo ſerious an object, as the regulation of quarantines muſt be, to all nations, gives ſo great an advantage to the Dutch Turkey trade over ours, that it induces their government to overlook the riſks the nation incurs by it; and when repreſentations were made in Holland on the neceſſity of eſtabliſhing a lazaretto to obviate this riſk, and the fatal conſequences which the introduction of the plague might be of to all Europe, the thrifty Hollanders, ever preferring the intereſts of their trade to thoſe of humanity, would not allow ſo forcible an argument to have any weight with them; but gave for anſwer, that it would be time enough to *think* of a lazaretto when the Engliſh *built* one. The Dutch traders have ſo decided a ſuperiority over us at our own markets, that it is only the neceſſity gentlemen are in to have returns, which can induce us to ſhip any cottons at all during the exiſtence of the plague here; for by arriving after our markets are ſupplied, loaded beſides with ten per cent. extra charges, incurred in the ports where they perform quarantine, they are ſold to a conſiderable loſs. This circumſtance alone is ſufficient to account for the preſent inſignificance of our trade, and the conſequent little advantage the nation reaps from it. In what a different ſituation would the eſtabliſhment of a lazaretto put it? By depriving the Dutch of the advantages they now enjoy, we ſhould be able to ſupply the whole quantity of cotton demanded at our markets; inſtead of only ſending five thouſand bales, we ſhould ſend more than double the quantity annually; and as, by a fixed regulation of the Levant company, we can only purchaſe the products of this country with the produce of goods ſent from England, the importation of our manufactures would increaſe in the ſame proportion. The quantity of ſhipping employed in the trade would likewiſe be doubled, and by earning the freight which is now paid to the Dutch, on the cottons they ſend to England, it would be ſo much clear gain to the nation, added to the advantages which would attend the extenſion of its navigation, and the increaſe of the conſumption of its manufactures; advantages which are now enjoyed by our rivals the Dutch, the proſperity of whoſe trade is founded on the ruin of ours.

"We are aware that the building of a lazaretto would coſt the nation a conſiderable ſum of money; but we think the commercial advantages it would derive from it would alone be more than a compenſation for ſuch a charge. It would not only be the ſhips which load in the ports of Turkey, but thoſe from all the ports in the Mediterranean, which would contribute to its ſupport.

"Admitting, however, that the Turkey trade is not ſo far worth the notice of government as to induce it to build a lazaretto for it, the conſideration alone of its preſerving the nation from the great riſk it now evidently runs of ſuch a great calamity as the plague being introduced into it, we preſume is of ſufficient importance to make government determine on a meaſure which every ſtate in Italy has conſidered ſo neceſſary, that the moſt inſignificant amongſt them have their lazarettos. The knowledge you have acquired of the plans and regulations of theſe, and every other lazaretto in Europe, in your preſent tour, is ſo much ſu-

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perior to any information we can give you, that we do not preſume to trouble you on the ſubject.

"Should your repreſentations meet with the ſucceſs they will deſerve, the nation at large will experience, in a new inſtance, the advantages that can be derived from the purſuits of a ——— individual, who, from the nobleſt motives, dedicates himſelf to the intereſts of humanity, and we, as well as every other member of the Levant company, ſhall conſider ourſelves as indebted to you for the revival of our drooping trade.

William Barker,
Joſeph Frand,
Richard Lee, jun.
Edward Lee,
Smyrna, *Iſaac Morier,*
July 3, 1786. *James Hicks Gribble,*
Anthony Hayes, jun.
Frederick Hayes,
George Perkins,
Thomas J. Barker."

DIRECTIONS for Preſerving a TRAVELLER'S HEALTH, particularly in HOT COUNTRIES.

[From an ESSAY to direct and extend the Enquiries of PATRIOTIC TRAVELLERS, by Count LEOPOLD BERCHTOLD.]

"1. A Traveller ought to be perfectly well acquainted with what agrees, or diſagrees with his conſtitution, and obſerve thoſe rules which cuſtom has eſtabliſhed in favour of his health, at leaſt as far as circumſtances will admit of. He will act prudently, to pay a ſtrict attention with regard to eating, drinking, dreſs, exerciſe, and reſt, and conform to the cuſtoms, and mode of life of the moſt ſober claſs of the inhabitants of the country he is in. Experience has taught people of all countries, which manner of living is the moſt wholeſome in the climate they inhabit.

"2. Though the ſieſta (the afternoon's ſleep) agrees perfectly well with moſt foreigners in Spain and Italy; nevertheleſs it is liable to bring on apoplexies in cold climates, where meat and ſoporiferous malt liquors are uſed in great quantity. Travellers in warm countries, who may be invited to an afternoon's ſleep, ought to obſerve, that the duration of it ſhould be proportioned to the quick or difficult digeſtion of the perſon: one quarter of an hour, or half an hour is ſufficient; people ſhould always be awaked before the end of an hour. To ſleep in a horizontal poſition would be prejudicial; the fitteſt place for that kind of reſt is an arm chair, or a canopee. The head ought to be laid high, and the body bent backwards, and a little turned towards the left ſide. Every thing that is likely to prevent the circulation of the blood, muſt be removed, otherwiſe violent headachs will be felt.

"3. Water is very unwholeſome in ſome places, and ought to be conſidered ſo, if ſoap will not diſſolve in it. If a perſon ſhould happen to be very thirſty, and no other drink to be had, that water ſhould be ſoaked through a piece of very fine linen, and a little vinegar, juice of lemon, or a toaſt put into it. It would be ſtill better to boil it, if the circumſtances will admit, and drink it when cool. Wells, that are ſituated in marſhy grounds, or near

privies,

privies, or thoſe which are obſerved to have a whitiſh ſcum on the ſurface of the water, are generally reckoned to be unwholeſome.

" 4. Violent exerciſe after dinner is prejudicial, and more ſo in warm countries than in cold ones; therefore people who travel on horſeback, or in a vehicle, whoſe motion is rather violent, will act prudently, if they eat and drink ſparingly. The ſhaking of the carriage heats the blood, conſequently ſtrong liquors ſhould be taken with the greateſt moderation, particularly in ſouthern climates.

" 5. Cleanlineſs requires people to bathe oftener when they are travelling than when they are at home; yet they muſt be very careful never to bathe when their blood is agitated, or the ſtomach full, or the day is very hot. The cool morning and evening hours are the only times to take this ſalutiferous recreation. Even the moſt expert ſwimmer ſhould never bathe in the ſea or in a river, without taking along with him another perſon, who knows how to ſwim. He ſhould be careful to chooſe a bathing place where the bottom is clear ſand, and has no ſea weeds upon it; for they frequently contain a ſpecies of pointed ſhells, which are apt to inflict dangerous wounds if trodden upon. One of the moſt neceſſary precautions in bathing, is to plunge into the water head foremoſt, otherwiſe the blood ruſhing into the head expoſes the perſon to an apoplectic attack.

" 6. Travellers in carriages are very liable to have their legs ſwelled; in order to prevent being thus incommoded, it will be adviſable to wear ſhoes rather than boots, to untie the garters, to alight now and then, and to walk as often as opportunity permits it, which will favour circulation. If the windows of the carriage are kept to, the air is ſoon affected, and may prove prejudicial to reſpiration.

" 7. Feather-beds and counterpanes of cotton are very liable to collect noxious exhalations; for this reaſon thoſe who travel, ought to make uſe of the hartſkins, deſcribed under the remarks on inns.

" 8. The vapours of charcoal are alſo exceedingly prejudicial; people ſhould be remarkably careful never to permit a pan of charcoal to be brought into their apartment, unleſs it is quite burnt to aſhes; it would be dangerous to ſleep with it in the bed-room, as a great many lives have been loſt in that manner.

" 9. In marſhy grounds the air is remarkably unhealthy, and there are countries, for inſtance the Pontin Marſhes in the Pope's dominions, where it is often attended with fatal conſequences to ſleep even in day time. Foreigners ſhould inform themſelves minutely concerning the ſalubrity or unwholeſomeneſs of the air of thoſe places where they ſleep, and take the neceſſary precautions to guard againſt the deſtructive effects of the latter.

" 10. Sweet or boiled wines, ſuch as are to be found in the Papal dominions on the coaſt of the Adriatic, delay the digeſtive faculty for a long time, and as they tend exceſſively to inflame the blood, they muſt be uſed in the moſt ſparing manner.

" 11. Freſh fruit, and even the ripeſt grapes, relax the ſtomach in hot climates, and an immoderate meal on them, would infallibly produce the moſt dangerous conſequences, if bread was omitted to be eaten with them.

" 12. Travellers in warm climates ſhould abſtain from meat as much as poſſible, particularly at night, otherwiſe

ſe they might be expoſed to pu-
d fevers, which are ſeldom eaſily
noved.

" 13. Sleeping with the windows
en in hot climates is ſo unwhole-
ne, that many have hardly time
ough to repent of their impru-
nce. Thoſe who travel on foot,
ould never ſleep under the ſhadow
a tree, or near a hemp field.

" 14. Thirſt is more effectually
enched by eating freſh fruit, and
norſel of bread, than by drink-
g water: and if no fruit is to be
d, it is better to mix a little
negar, or the juice of a lemon
h it, than to drink it by itſelf.

" 15. After a long journey on
t, it is unwholeſome to take a
entiful meal, or to ſit near a great
e.

" 16. Such as are under the ne-
ſity of remaining in places in a
rſhy ſituation, ſhould reſide in
artments in the upper ſtories, and
dry houſes; they ought to take
per exerciſe, without labour, in
ſun, or the evening damps; a
t quantity of vinous liquors, and
tuals of good nouriſhment, are
ceſſary in ſuch circumſtances.

" 17. A perſon who is not ac-
ſtomed to walk a great deal, ſhould
dually increaſe the length of the
tion. If the wind is very high,
s better to have it ſideways, than
the face.

" 18. Since tranſpiration is eaſily
peded, and its effects attended
h bad conſequences, it is prudent
travellers on foot to wear a flannel
iſtcoat next the ſkin.

" 19. Freſh killed meat, greens,
d freſh fiſh, are preferable to any
ner food, and ſimple nouriſhment
beſt.

" 20. Damp beds are very often
nd in inns little viſited, and in
rooms where fire is ſeldom
de: they ought to be carefully
avoided, for they not only bring
on illneſs, but ſometimes prove the
death of the perſon, who has the
misfortune to ſleep in one. Thoſe
who travel ſhould examine the beds,
to ſee whether they are quite dry,
and have the bed-clothes in their
preſence put before the fire. If the
mattreſſes are ſuſpected, it will be
preferable to lie down on dry and
clean ſtraw. If a friend offers you a
bed, endeavour to have it warmed,
with the neceſſary precautions, be-
cauſe there are in certain houſes cer-
tain beds kept only for particular viſi-
tors, and therefore they might be
damp, if not uſed for a long while.

" 21. People whoſe clothes have
been wet through, ſhould look for
very dry beds, have the ſheets well
aired, put on clean ſhirts, ſmoking
them firſt with ſugar, or ſomething
of that nature, and before they go
to bed, rub their ſkins with dry
flannel, which promotes perſpiration.
Thoſe parts of the body that have
been wet, ought to be waſhed with
lukewarm water, in which a little
ſoap has been diſſolved. Thoſe whom
circumſtances may not permit to put
on dry clothes, ſhould keep their
bodies in conſtant motion, till the
clothes are become dry again upon
them: this inconvenience ought to
be avoided as much as poſſible, be-
cauſe it brings on rheumatic pains,
agues, colics, &c. to people who are
not uſed to it.

" 22. Perſons who have perſpired
copiouſly from the heat of the ſun,
ſhould ſhelter themſelves as much
as opportunity will permit, during
the falling of the dew; if they can-
not avoid it, they ſhould by no
means ſit down. Continual exerciſe
favours tranſpiration, and dimi-
niſhes the bad conſequences which
the cool air expoſes people to.

" 23. Since a body, which is void
of food, is more apt to attract con-

tagious

tagious ſickneſſes, a traveller ſhould never viſit an hoſpital in the morning before he has breakfaſted; it will not be amiſs to eat a bit of bread dipped in vinegar, and to waſh the noſtrils and mouth with camphor-vinegar, before viſiting the ſick. During the time he is in an hoſpital, he ſhould never ſwallow his ſpittle, and rather uſe ſomething to draw it up, ſuch as ſponge, and blotting-paper. It is alſo very wholeſome to drink a glaſs of wine, with a little ſugar and the juice of half a lemon, on theſe occaſions.

"24. Travellers ſhould not neglect to carry with them a bottle of vinegar, de quarrre voleurs.—ditto beſt French brandy.—ditto arquebuſade, or Peruvian balſam.—ditto ſpirit of ſalmiac, againſt fits —ditto Hoffman's drops."

PRECAUTIONS to be uſed by thoſe who are about to undertake a SEA VOYAGE.

[By Dr. FRANKLIN.]

"WHEN you intend to take a long voyage, nothing is better than to keep it a ſecret, as much as poſſible, till the moment of your departure. Without this you will be continually interrupted and tormented by viſits from friends and acquaintances, who not only make you loſe your valuable time, but make you forget a thouſand things which you wiſh to remember; ſo that when you are embarked and fairly at ſea, you recollect with much uneaſineſs, affairs which you have not terminated, accounts that you have not ſettled, and a number of things which you propoſed to carry with you, and which you find the want of every moment. Would it not be attended with the beſt conſequences to reform ſuch a cuſtom, and to ſuffer a traveller without deranging him, to make his preparations in quietneſs, to ſet apart a few days, when theſe are finiſhed to take leave of his friends, and to receive their good wiſhes for his happy return?

"It is not always in one's power to chooſe a captain, though great part of the pleaſure and happineſs of the paſſage depends upon this choice, and though one muſt for a long time be confined to his company, and be in ſome meaſure under his command. If he is a ſocial ſenſible man, obliging, and of a good diſpoſition, you will be ſo much the happier. One ſometimes meets with people of this deſcription, but they are not common. However, if yours be not of this number, if he be a good ſeaman, attentive, careful, and active in the management of his veſſel, you muſt diſpenſe with the reſt, for theſe are the moſt eſſential qualities.

"Whatever right you may have by your agreement with him, to the proviſions which he has taken on board for the uſe of the paſſengers, it is always proper to have ſome private ſtore, which you may make uſe of occaſionally. You ought therefore, to provide good water, that of the ſhip being often bad; but you muſt put it into bottles, without which, you cannot expect to preſerve it ſweet. You ought alſo to carry with you good tea, ground coffee, chocolate, wine of that ſort which you like beſt, cyder, dried raiſins, almonds, ſugar, capillaire, citrons, rum, eggs dipped in oil, portable ſoup, bread twice baked. With regard

ard to poultry, it is almoſt uſeleſs
carry any with you, unleſs you
olve to undertake the office of
ding and fattening them yourſelf.
th the little care which is taken
them on board ſhip, they are al-
ſt all ſickly, and their fleſh is as
gh as leather.

'All ſailors entertain an opinion,
ich has undoubtedly originated
merly from a want of water, and
en it has been found neceſſary to
re it, that poultry never know
en they have drunk enough, and
t when water is given them at
cretion, they generally kill them-
ves by drinking beyond meaſure.
conſequence of this opinion, they
é them water only once in two
ys, and even then in ſmall quan-
es; but as they pour this water
o troughs, inclining to one ſide,
ich occaſions it to run to the lower
rt, it thence happens, that they are
liged to mount one upon the back
another, in order to reach it,
d there are ſome, which cannot
en dip their beaks in it. Thus con-
ually tantalized and tormented by
irſt, they are unable to digeſt their
od, which is very dry, and they
on fall ſick and die; ſome of them
e found thus every morning, and
e thrown into the ſea; whilſt thoſe
ich are killed for the table are
rcely fit to be eaten. To remedy
is inconveniece it will be neceſ-
y to divide their troughs into
all compartments, in ſuch a man-
r, that each of them may be cap-
le of containing water; but this
ſeldom or never done. On this
count, ſheep and hogs are to be
nſidered as the beſt freſh proviſions
at one can have at ſea; mutton
ere being in general very good,
d pork excellent.

"It may happen that ſome of the
roviſions and ſtores, which I have
commended, may become almoſt
uſeleſs, by the care which the captain
has taken to lay in a proper ſtock;
but in ſuch a caſe, you may diſpoſe
of it to relieve the poor paſſengers,
who paying leſs for their paſſage, are
ſtowed among the common ſailors,
and have no right to the captain's
proviſions, except to ſuch part of
them as is uſed for feeding the
crew. Theſe paſſengers are ſometimes
ſick, melancholy and dejected, and
there are often women and children
among them, neither of whom have
any opportunity of procuring thoſe
things which I have mentioned, and
of which, perhaps, they have the
greateſt need. By diſtributing a-
mongſt them a part of your ſuperflu-
ity, you may be of the greateſt aſ-
ſiſtance to them. You may reſtore
their health, ſave their lives, and in
ſhort render them happy, which al-
ways affords the liveliеſt pleaſure to
a feeling mind.

"The moſt diſagreeable thing at
ſea, is the cookery, for there is not,
properly ſpeaking, any profeſſed
cook on board. The worſt ſailor is
generally choſen for that purpoſe,
who for the moſt part is equally
dirty and unſkilful; hence comes
the proverb uſed among the Engliſh
ſailors, that "God ſends meat, and
the Devil ſends cooks." Thoſe,
however, who have a better opinion
of Providence, will think otherwiſe:
knowing that ſea air, and the exer-
ciſe or motion, which they receive
from the rolling of the ſhip, have a
wonderful effect in whetting the
appetite, they will ſay that Provi-
dence has given ſailors bad cooks, to
prevent them from eating too much;
or that knowing they would have bad
cooks, he has given them a good ap-
petite, to prevent them from dying
with hunger. However, if you have
no confidence in theſe ſuccours of
Providence, you may yourſelf, with
a lamp and a boiler, by the help of a
little

little ſpirits of wine, prepare ſome food, ſuch as ſoup, haſh, &c. A ſmall oven made of tin plate is not a bad piece of furniture; your ſervant may roaſt in it a piece of mutton or pork. If you are ever tempted to eat ſalt beef, which is often very good, you will find that cyder is the beſt liquor to quench the thirſt generally cauſed by ſalt meat, or ſalt fiſh. Sea biſcuit which is too hard for the teeth of ſome people, may be ſoftened by ſteeping it; but bread double baked is the beſt, for being made of good loaf bread cut into ſlices, and baked a ſecond time, it readily imbibes water, becomes ſoft, and is eaſily digeſted: it conſequently forms excellent nouriſhment, much ſuperior to that of biſcuit, which has not been fermented.

"I muſt here, obſerve, that this double baked bread was originally the real biſcuit prepared to keep at ſea; for the word *Biſcuit*, in French, ſignifies twice baked. Peaſe often boil badly, and do not become ſoft; in ſuch a caſe by putting a two-pound ſhot into the kettle, the rolling of the veſſel, by means of this bullet, will convert the peaſe into a kind of poridge like muſtard.

"Having often ſeen ſoup when put upon the table at ſea in broad flat diſhes, thrown out on every ſide by the rolling of the veſſel, I have wiſhed that our tinmen would make our ſoup baſons with diviſions or compartments, forming ſmall plates, proper for containing ſoup for one perſon only. By this diſpoſition the ſoup in an extraordinary roll would not be thrown out of the plate, and would not fall into the breaſts of thoſe who are at table, and ſcald them. Having entertained you with theſe things of little importance, permit me now to conclude with ſome general reflections upon navigation.

"When navigation is employed only for tranſporting neceſſary proviſions from one country where they abound, to another where they are wanting, when by this it prevents famines which were ſo frequent and ſo fatal before it was invented, and became ſo common, we cannot help conſidering it as one of thoſe arts which contribute moſt to the happineſs of mankind.

"But when it it employed to tranſport things of no utility, or articles merely of luxury, it is then uncertain whether the advantages reſulting from it are ſufficient to counter-balance the misfortunes which it occaſions, by expoſing the lives of ſo many individuals upon the vaſt ocean. And when it is uſed to plunder veſſels and tranſport ſlaves, it is evidently only the dreadful means of increaſing thoſe calamities which afflict human nature.

"One is aſtoniſhed to think on the number of veſſels and men who are daily expoſed in going to bring tea from China, coffee from Arabia, and ſugar and tobacco from America; all commodities which our anceſtors lived very well without. The ſugar trade employs nearly a thouſand veſſels, and that of tobacco almoſt the ſame number. With regard to the utility of tobacco little can be ſaid; and with regard to ſugar, how much more meritorious would it be, to ſacrifice the momentary pleaſure which we receive from drinking it once or twice a day in our tea, than to encourage the numberleſs cruelties that are continually exerciſed in order to procure it to us?

"A celebrated French moraliſt ſaid, that when he conſidered the wars which we foment in Africa to get negroes, the great number who of courſe periſh in theſe wars, the multiude of thoſe wretches who die in their paſſage by diſeaſe, bad air,

and

and bad provisions, and lastly, how many perish by the cruel treatment they meet with in a state of slavery, when he saw a bit of sugar, he could not help imagining it to be covered with spots of human blood; but had he added to these considerations, the wars which we carry on against one another, to take and retake the islands that produce this commodity, he would not have seen the sugar simply spotted with blood, he would have beheld it entirely tinged with it.

"These wars make the maritime powers of Europe, and the inhabitants of Paris and London, pay much dearer for their sugar than those of Vienna, though they are almost three hundred leagues distant from the sea. A pound of sugar, indeed, costs the former not only the price which they give for it, but also what they pay in taxes, necessary to support those fleets and armies, which serve to defend and protect the countries that produce it."

Singular ACCOUNT of what may be effected, by rigid ŒCONOMY.

[From ANDREWS's Anecdotes Ancient and Modern.]

THE following letter contains an instance of the most excellent domestic management, which imagination can conceive. It may be depended on, for facetious as the writer is known to be, he never indulges his humour at the expence of his veracity; and he avers every circumstance there related to be literally true.

"You ask me what I have seen, in my ramble, worth relating. You are no antiquarian, I will not therefore tease you with ruined abbeys, Gothic castles, Roman and Danish camps, or Druidical circles, but confine my narrative to a human curiosity. This is a Mr. Osbaldeston, an attorney's clerk, and, spite of the popular prejudices against his profession, said to be an honest man. This you will allow to be a curiosity, but that is not all. This honest limb of the law is married, and has, at least, half a dozen children, all whom, with as many couple of hounds, and a brace of hunters, he maintains out of; how much do you think? Guess a little, I pray you. Why then, to support himself, a wife, six children, twelve dogs, and two horses, he has not a penny more than sixty pounds per annum! And, if possible to increase the miracle, he did this in London for many years, paying every body their own, and keeping a tight coat for Sundays and holidays. But I will try to explain this seeming paradox. After the expiration of the time which Mr. Osbaldeston owed his master, he acted as an accountant for the butchers in Clare-market, who paid him in offal; the choicest morsels of this, he selected for himself and family, and with the rest he fed his hounds, which he kept in his garret. His horses were lodged in his cellar, and fed on grains from a neighbouring brewhouse, and on damaged corn, with which he was supplied by a corn-chandler, whose books he kept in order. Once or twice a week, in the season, he hunted, and by giving a hare, now and then, to the farmers, over whose grounds he sported, secured their good-will, and permission.

Beſides which, ſeveral gentlemen, ſtruck with his extraordinary oeconomy, winked at his going over their manors with his moderate pack.

"Accident has, ſince, removed this uncommon man to Lewes, in Suſſex, where, on the ſame ſtipend, he continues to maintain the ſame family. Curioſity led me to viſit this extraordinary party, about their dinner time. The two legged part of it were clean, though not ſuperfluouſly clothed, and ſeemed to live like brothers with the ſurrounding animals. It looked, in ſhort ſomewhat like the golded age. Mr. O. himſelf ſeemed and acted like the father of the quadrupeds, as well as the bipeds, and as ſuch, decided with the utmoſt impartiality, for Maſter Jacky having taken a bone from Jowler, he commanded inſtant reſtitution. And, on the other hand, Doxy, having ſnatched a piece of liver from Miſs Dorothea, was obliged, on the ſpot, to reſtore it to the young lady.

"On enquiry, I found that Mr. O. was the younger ſon of a gentleman of good family, but ſmall fortune, in the North of England, and that having imprudently married one of his father's ſervants, he was turned out of doors, with no other fortune than a ſouthern hound, big with pup, whoſe offſpring has ſince been a ſource of profit and amuſement to him." F. G.

"The writer of the above letter has informed the editor, that this very extraordinary character has lately reſided, with the ſame family, at Croydon, in Surrey."

Different ANECDOTES illuſtrating the Force of GRATITUDE.

[From the ſame Work.]

"THERE is a ſpecies of grateful remorſe, which ſometimes has been known to operate forcibly on the minds of the moſt hardened in impudence. Towards the beginning of this century, an actor, celebrated for mimicry, was to have been employed by a comic author, to take off the perſon, the manner, and the ſingularly awkward delivery of the celebrated Dr. Woodward, who was intended to be introduced on the ſtage in a laughable character. The mimic dreſſed himſelf as a countryman, and waited on the doctor with a long catalogue of ailments, which he ſaid attended on his wife. The phyſician heard with amazement, diſeaſes and pains of the moſt oppoſite nature, repeated and redoubled on the wretched patient. For, ſince the actor's greateſt wiſh was to keep Dr. Woodward in his company, as long as poſſible, that he might make the more obſervations on his geſtures, he loaded his poor imaginary ſpouſe with every infirmity, which had any probable chance of prolonging the interview. At length, being become completely maſter of his errant, he drew from his purſe a guinea, and with a ſcrape, made an uncouth offer of it. "Put up thy money, poor fellow," cried the doctor, "put up thy money. Thou haſt need of all thy caſh and all thy patience too, with ſuch a bundle of diſeaſes tied to thy back."

"The actor returned to his employer, and recounted the whole converſation, with ſuch true feeling of

of the phyſician's character, that the author ſcreamed with approbation. His raptures were ſoon checked, for the mimic told him with the emphaſis of ſenſibility, that he would ſooner die than proſtitute his talents to the rendering ſuch genuine humanity, a public laughing ſtock.

"A more groteſque inſtance of the ſudden power of gratitude, may be adduced in a modern Kentiſh anecdote, perfectly well atteſted.

"A parſon Patten, of Whitſtable, was well known in his own neighbourhood, as a man of great oddity, great humour, and equally great extravagance. Once, ſtanding in need of a new wig, his old one defying all farther aſſiſtance of art; he went over to Canterbury, and applied to a barber, young in the buſineſs, to make him one. The tradeſman, who was juſt going to dinner, begged the honour of his new cuſtomer's company at his meal, to which Patten moſt readily conſented. After dinner a large bowl of punch was produced, and the reverend gueſt, with equal readineſs joined in its demolition. When it was out, the barber was proceeding to buſineſs, and began to handle his meaſure, when Mr. Patten deſired him to deſiſt, ſaying he ſhould not make his wig. "Why not," exclaimed the aſtoniſhed hoſt, "have I done any thing to offend you, Sir?" "Not in the leaſt," replied the gueſt, "I find you are a very honeſt, good-natured, fellow; ſo I will take ſomebody elſe in. Had you made it, you would never have been paid for it."

POETRY.

ODE on His MAJESTY's BIRTH-DAY.

By the Rev. T. WARTON, B. D. Poet-Laureat.

AS when the demon of the ſummer-ſtorm
Walks forth, the noontide landſcape to deform;
Dark grows the vale, and dark the diſtant grove,
And thick the bolts of angry Jove
Athwart the watry welkin glide,
And ſtreams th' aerial torrent far and wide:
If by ſhort fits the ſtruggling ray
Should dart a momentary day,
Th' illumin'd mountain glows awhile,
By faint degrees the radiant glance
Purples th' horizon's pale expanſe,
And gilds the gloom with haſty ſmile:
Ah, fickle ſmile; too ſwiftly paſt!
Again reſounds the ſweeping blaſt;
With hoarſer din the demon howls,
Again the blackening concave ſcowls!
Sudden, the ſhades of the meridan night
Yield to the triumph of rekindling light:
The reddening ſun regains his golden ſway,
And nature ſtands reveal'd in all her bright array.

Such was the changeful conflict, that poſſeſs'd
With trembling tumult every Britiſh breaſt;
When Albion, towering in the van ſublime
Of Glory's march, from clime to clime
Envied, belov'd, rever'd, renown'd,
Her brows with every bliſsful chaplet bound;
When, in her mid career of ſtate,
She felt her monarch's aweful fate! ——
Till Mercy from th' Almighty throne
Look'd down on man, and waving wide
Her wreath, that in the rainbow died,
With hues of ſoften'd luſtre ſhone,

And

And bending from her ſapphire cloud,
O'er regal grief benignant bow'd;
To tranſport turn'd a people's fears,
And ſtay'd a people's tide of tears:
Bade this bleſt dawn with beams auſpicious ſpring,
With hope ſerene, with healing in its wing;
And gave a ſovereign o'er a grateful land
Again with vigorous graſp to ſtretch the ſcepter'd hand.

O favour'd king, what rapture more refin'd,
What mightier joy, can fill the human mind,
Than that the monarch's conſcious boſom feels,
At whoſe dread throne a nation kneels,
And hails its father, friend, and lord,
To life's career, to patriot ſway reſtor'd;
And bids the loud reſponſive voice
Of union all around rejoice?
For thus to thee when Britons bow,
Warm and ſpontaneous from the heart,
As late their tears, their tranſports ſtart,
And nature dictates duty's vow;
To thee, recall'd to ſacred health,
Did the proud city's laviſh wealth,
Did crowded ſtreets alone diſplay
The long-drawn blaze, the feſtal ray?
Meek Poverty her ſcanty cottage grac'd,
And flung her gleam acroſs the lonely waſte!
Th' exulting iſle in one wide triumph ſtrove,
One ſocial ſacrifice of reverential love.

Such pure unprompted praiſe do kingdoms pay,
Such willing zeal, to thrones of lawleſs ſway?
Ah! how unlike the vain the venal lore
To Latian rulers dealt of yore,
O'er guilty pomp, and hated power,
When ſtream'd the ſparkling panegyric ſhower:
And ſlaves to ſovereigns unendear'd
Their pageant trophies coldly rear'd!
For are the charities, that blend
Monarch with man, to tyrants known?
The tender ties, that to the throne
A mild domeſtic glory lend;
Of wedded love the league ſincere,
The virtuous conſort's faithful tear!
Nor this the verſe that flattery brings,
Nor here I ſtrike a Syren's ſtrings;
Here, kindling with her country's warmth, the Muſe,
Her country's proud triumphant theme purſues:
Ev'n needleſs here the tribute of her lay!—
Albion the garland gives on this diſtinguiſh'd day.

HYMN to the GENIUS of ODOURS.

By Bocarez the Arabian Poet: tranſlated by Sir William Jones.

WHAT muſky grove can now confine
Thy burniſh'd treſſes' ſilver twine.
While breathing beauty fills the vale,
And Mirza's kiſſes greet the gale;
Soft Pow'r of Sweetneſs! ſhe ſhall tear
Freſh ſpices from thy hanging hair;
Her ruby lip, the odour breathes
Of Laro's choiceſt Caſſia wreaths.

Soft Pow'r of Sweetneſs! hither blow,
Mix with my goblet's purple glow,
So ſhall the liquid breezes bear
To Rafab's tomb; a lover's care;
Thy ſcented hands the garland bind,
To deck Somara's ſilken wind,
Which dares to reſt on Mirza's cheek,
When firſt its morning bluſhes break.

But do not touch thoſe piercing eyes,
Whence unrelenting lightning flies,
For, ah! 'midſt thoſe deſtructive fires
The Bird of Araby expires;
Amidſt thoſe flames again revives,
And, lo! a new-born Phœnix lives,
To ſeek thy bleſt ſalubrious throne,
And paſs a rapt'rous age alone.

Soft Pow'r of Sweetneſs! Mirza's breaſt
Shall bring thy balmy pinion reſt;
Not always ſhall it flutt'ring go,
But ſtop where Love's young lilies blow.
Yield to deſire—O! quit reſtraint,
In life's delicious Eden faint,
While Aloey fans the gales employ,
And odours heighten natures joy.

Bliſs to the wild unconquer'd bands,
Who dwell on Arab's deſart ſands;
Who nobly ſeize, in gallant train,
Balſora's merchants on the plain:
May loaded camels ſwell their ſtore,
And ſparkling gems, and valued ore!
For wealth Bocarez ne'er ſhall rove,
The plunder that he ſeeks—is Love.

Fai

Fair Selma walks the citron brake,
When tuneful nightingales awake;
She moves a roſe in all its charms,
To win the warblers to her arms;
They come amidſt her locks to hide,
Or ſeek her beauty's central pride;
They taſte her fragrant breath, which pours
An amb'ry fountain's lucid ſtores.

Rich Ethiop myrrh Taloza bears,
And fondly ſcents the roving airs,
Which bow in homage to the beam
That yonder violet-tinctured ſtream
Steals from the moon as ſlow ſhe glides
Her pearly bark acroſs the tides,
Which fill the blue expanſe of heaven,
In many a ſhining current driven.

Taloza's ſmiles are all deceit,
And Selma ſhews fictitious heat,
But Mirza is thy full-veil'd bride,
Sultana dear! and Odour's pride:
Whene'er ſhe comes the grove to tread,
The bluſhing Loria lifts its head,
The Milbo's gauzy leaves unfold,
And fragrant Ancoz drops its gold.

Soft Pow'r of Sweetneſs! tell my fair
The fierce conſuming flame I bear
Euphrates' waves could ne'er controul,
With all its full impetuous roll.
Faithful in love is ſtill my boaſt,
To love, of humankind, the moſt,
My wiſh a Houri's kiſs to try,
I live but on the hope to die.

ODE to the LAKE of GENEVA,

By Wm. Parsons, Eſq. F. R. S.

Written at the Chateau de Chillon, near Vevay, after a Tour to the Glaciers of Chamouni and through the lower Valais.

[Communicated by that Gentleman.]

FROM Alpine heights where clad in ſnow
Mont Blanc uprears his monarch brow,
Where chamois on the ridgy rock
The hunter's daring efforts mock,

*To graſp each bare dry crag who ſtrains,
And opes in fell deſpair his veins,

From where in indolence ſupine
The ſluggiſh Valaiſans recline,
Where, as I trod the marſhy plain,
I pitying ſaw the liſtleſs ſwain,
Bent by the Goitre's tumid load,
Scarce lift his hand to point the road.

To thee returned, enchanting Lake!
With thy pure wave my thirſt I ſlake,
Thy wave whoſe chryſtal pride diſdains
The furious Rhone's polluting ſtains,
And all his turbid ſtream refines
Till like thyſelf ſerene it ſhines.

Too ſoon, as men, reform'd in vain,
Meet vice and grow corrupt again,
Foul as before he rolls allied
With ſallow Arve's contagious tide;
Mourns he forſook thy chaſter bed,
And hides in earth his conſcious head.

On ſcenes of dread I gaze no more,
Nor hear the tumbling Glaciers roar,
Thy mild expanſe of ſapphire hue
Shall now far more delight my view,
Thy gentle tide's ſoft murmurs cheer
With ſoothing melody my ear.

Fair Queen of Lakes neglected long,
Unhonour'd in Auſonian ſong,
Yet not the wave that Dian loves
O'erhung by Nemi's nodding groves,
Nor bright Blanduſia rais'd ſo high
In Flaccus' ſtrain with thee can vye.

And while I caſt my eyes around
They yet ſhall ſtray o'er claſſic ground,
For here Rouſſeau's expreſſive power
Commands the viſionary hour:
The well-mark'd ſcenes his tale renew,
And Fancy fondly thinks it true.

* It is a fact mentioned by many travellers, and verified by the author's own enquiries, that the Chamois hunters in the hot ſeaſon when the ſliding duſt makes the points of the rocks unſafe to hold by, are ſometimes obliged, after all other moiſture fails, to wound themſelves and moiſten them with their blood.

My

My glowing thought attempts to trace
Each charm that dwelt on Julia's face,
Views the frail damsel's alter'd will
The matron's chaste devoirs fulfill;
'Twas here, with frantic sorrow wild,
She leap'd to save her sinking child.

If Chablais' cliffs attract my eye
The suffering peasants claim a sigh,
Who leave untill'd the fertile soil
Envying their happier neighbour's toil,
So wondrous strong the marks appear
Of Slavery there, and Freedom here.

O Freedom! at thine honor'd name
I kindle with congenial flame,
For not to Albion's scenes alone
Her sons can wish thy blessings known,
More rapturous far were their delight
Could all partake the common right!

To the MARQUIS IPPOLITO PINDEMONT, NOBLE VENETIAN,

On his Poem on the Defence of Gibraltar, entitled "GIBILTERRA SALVATA."

[By the Same.]

MOST Bards with partial choice have told
The martial deeds of heroes bold,
Resolv'd the laureat crowns they give
Should ne'er on foreign temples live.
When Homer pours his magic strain,
Great father of the Epic vein,
With patriot zeal his lays increase
The triumphs of his native Greece.
The Mantuan Muse delights to tell
What various turns of fate befell
The Man from Ilion's doom who bore
His Lares to the Latian shore,
Till nobler fame than Greeks o'ercome
Crowns the Great Ancestor of Rome.
Thus Camoens too in later time
For Gama framed the lofty rhime,
The wreaths he sung by Lusians won,
Who eastward sought the rising sun.

And the ſame track the Gallic Muſe
But with unequal ſtep purſues,
While gay Voltaire's more feeble aim
For Henry blows the trump of Fame.

But Pindemont! thy liberal mind
Scorns to one ſpot to be confin'd,
Like Jove himſelf thy equal eye
Can Virtue's every haunt deſcry,
To every ſhore thy ſail's unfurl'd
Poet and Patriot of the World!

Tho' ſtill exiſts the ſpirit bold
That warm'd her warrior ſons of old,
Yet now the Muſes ceaſe to ſmile
On Albion's once illumin'd iſle.
The fire that glow'd in Milton's page
Is quench'd in this benighted age,
And Elliot's ſelf muſt owe to thee
His well-earn'd immortality;
Thus ſhines the verſe that gives him fame
At once our glory and our ſhame!

Long as it's theme that verſe ſhall laſt,
Not Calpe's mountain fix'd more faſt;
While Learning, ſolid as the rock,
The critic's vain attempts ſhall mock,
Like idle waves that chafe below;
On this firm baſe his lofty brow,
Illum'd by Phoebus' brighter rays,
Genius ſublimely bold diſplays,
Securely triumphs and enjoys the blaze!

TRANSLATION from PETRARCH.

"Ne la ſtagion che'l ciel rapido inchina."

[By the Same.]

AT the ſoft hour of twilight gray,
When fades the landſcape on our eyes,
And lights pure beam is borne away
Elſewhere to glad th' expecting ſkies;
The female pilgrim, worn with age,
Who treads alone the darkening waſte,
Doubles her ſteps with anxious haſte,
Till finiſh'd is her daily ſtage;

And wearied then, in peace reclin'd,
Refreſhing ſlumbers are beſtow'd,
That chace from her oblivious mind
The horrors of the doubtful road,
But ſtill new griefs the day-ſtar brings to me,
And with increaſe of woe his parting ray I ſee.

When rolls the ſun his flaming wheels
To yield to night's returning reign,
And the vaſt ſhadow length'ning ſteal
From loftieſt mountains o'er the plains
*The lab'rer takes his ruſtic arms,
And, with rude ſhouts or ſimple ſong,
Winding the various path along,
Far from his breaſt all ſorrow charms;
Till on his board coarſe viands ſpread,
Like thoſe primeval acorns lie
Which mortals honour tho' they fly,
And joy appears, and care is fled:
Yet joy no more my ſuffering boſom knows,
Nor can the rolling planets bring me ſhort repoſe.

The ſhepherd, when yon orb of day
Sinks like a bird into his neſt,
And eaſtern ſkies, in dark array,
Make contraſt with the crimſon Weſt,
Leaving the mead, the grove, the brook,
Homeward his way contented holds,
Drives ſlowly to the evening folds
His drowſy flock with guiding crook,
And far from noiſe reclines ſecure
In cave or hut with branches wove;
Thou, cruel Love! doſt then allure
Still more my wakeful ſteps to rove,
Purſuing her, who, like the timid hare,
Stops but again to fly, and mocks my reſtleſs care.

To ſome calm port by tempeſts blown,
The ſailor ſweet repoſe hath found,
On the hard deck his limbs are thrown,
And rugged garments wrap him round.
Tho' Phœbus ſeeks the diſtant main
Beyond th' Herculean columns tall,
And night's kind mantle covers all,
While men and beaſts forget their pain;

* L'avaro zappador l'arme riprende—probably borrowed from Virgil's Georgics, Dicendum, eſt quæ ſint duris agreſtibus arma." Mr. Maſon in his Engliſh Garden, has adopted the ſame expreſſion.

" In the waſte
" Place thou that man with his primeval arms,
" His plough-ſhare and his ſpade."

My

My ſorrows ſtill increaſing flow,
And each ſucceeding day is paſt
In ſad exceſs of bitter woe,
As vain and fruitleſs as the laſt
Ten long years have meaſured thus in grief,
Unknowing where to ſeek, or how to hope relief.

Since ſome ſmall ſolace thence I find,
Still let me pour the mournful ſtrain:
Lo! where the looſen'd oxen wind
From furrow'd hills wide o'er the plain;
Yet ceaſe not theſe heart-rending ſighs,
My heavier yoke is ne'er remov'd;
No reſpite has this boſom prov'd,
But day and night my tears ariſe!
Ah me! ill fated was the hour
When firſt I ſaw her matchleſs grace;
Nor time, nor art, can now have power
The ſtrong impreſſion to efface,
Till ſeiz'd by death this anxious life is o'er,
Nor am I well aſſur'd I then ſhall love no more!

* My ſong!—if any aſk thee, tell
Where now retired I chuſe to dwell;
†In the cloſed vale where Sorga ſprings,
While Love alone approaches nigh,
Who to my thought her image brings
For whom all human ſteps I fly!

The PROGRESS OF NOVEMBER;

An ODE. By a LADY.

[Communicated by a Friend.]

NOW yellow autumn's leafy ruins lie
In faded ſplendor on the deſert plain,
Far from the noiſe of madding crowds I fly,
To wake in ſolitude the myſtic ſtrain:
A theme of import high I dare to ſing,
While fate impels my hand to ſtrike the trembling ſtring.

* Moſt of Petrarch's canzones conclude in this manner, with a ſhot addreſs to her ſong in a different meaſure from the reſt of the poem; but this is taken from another of them which pleaſed the tranſlator better than what followed in the original.

† Vaucluſe, elegant deſcriptions of which romantic ſpot the poetical reader may ſee in Sir William Jones's Laura, and Les Jardins de Menſ. l'Abbe De Lille.

Bright

Bright on my harp the meteors gleam,
As thro' the ſhades they glancing ſhine;
Now the winds howl, the night birds ſcream,
And yelling ghoſts the chorus join:
Chimeras dire, from Fancy's deepeſt Hell,
Fly o'er yon hallow'd tow'r, and toll the paſſing bell.

November hears the diſmal ſound,
As ſlow advancing from the pole
He leads the months their wintry round:
The blackening clouds attendant roll,
Where frown a giant-band, the ſons of Care,
Dark thoughts, preſages fell, and comfortleſs deſpair.

O'er Britain's iſle they ſpread their wings,
And ſhades of death diſmay the land;
November wide his mantle flings,
And lifting high his vengeful hand,
Hurls down the demon Spleen, with powers combin'd
To check the ſprings of life, and cruſh th' enfeebled mind.

Thus drear dominion he maintains,
Beneath a cold inclement ſky;
While noxious fogs, and drizzling rains,
On Nature's ſickening boſom lie:
The opening roſe of youth untimely fades
And Hope's fair friendly light beams dimly thro' the ſhades.

Now prowls abroad the ghaſtly fiend;
"Fell Suicide!"—whom Phrenzy bore,
His brows with writhing ſerpents twin'd,
His mantle ſteep'd in human gore.
The livid flames around his eye-balls play,
Stern Horror ſtalks before, and Death purſues his way.

Hark! is not that the fatal ſtroke?
See where the bleeding victim lies!
The bonds of ſocial feeling broke,
Diſmay'd the frantic ſpirit flies.
Creation ſtarts, and ſhrinking Nature views,
Appall'd, the blow which Heav'n's firſt right ſubdues.

Behold, the weight of woes combin'd
A "woman" has the pow'r to ſcorn;
Her infant race to ſhame conſign'd,
A name diſgrac'd, a fortune torn,
She meets reſolv'd: and, combating deſpair,
Supports alone the ills a "coward" durſt not ſhare.

On langour, luxury, and pride,
The ſubtle fiend employs his ſpell;
Where ſelfiſh, ſordid paſſions bide;
Where weak, impatient ſpirits dwell;
Where thought oppreſſive from itſelf would fly,
And ſeek relief from time, in dark eternity.

Far from the ſcenes of guilty death,
My wearied ſpirit ſeeks to reſt;—
Why ſudden ſtops my ſtruggling breath?
Why throbs ſo ſtrong my aching breaſt?
Hark! ſounds of horror ſweep the troubled glade,
Far on a whirlwind borne, the fatal month is fled.

I watch'd his flight, and ſaw him bear
To Saturn's orb the ſullen band;
There winter chills the lingering year,
And gloom eternal ſhades the land:
On a lone rock, far on a ſtormy main,
In cheerleſs priſon pent, I heard the ghoſts complain.

Some Pow'r unſeen denies my verſe
The hallow'd veil of fate to rend;
Now ſudden blaſts the ſounds diſperſe,
And Fancy's inſpirations end:
While ruſhing winds in vile diſcordant jar,
And Winter calls the ſtorms around his icy car.

VERSES on the Death of Miſs MARIA BRADSHAW, an amiable young Lady who died in the 23d Year of her Age.

By Mrs. MOODY.

[An original Communication.]

Ma pur che l'alma in Dio ſi riconforte
Che altro qu'un ſoſpir breve é la Morte? PETRARCA.

COME, ſacred Muſe, thine aid ſupply;
Come chaſe the tear from ſorrow's eye,
Inſcribe yon urn with ſoothing rhyme,
Where youth lies mouldering in its prime.

Though Death thus fades that virgin bloom,
And bids it wither in the tomb;
The gloomy path her ſteps have trod,
Conducts MARIA to her God.

On Seraph wings Religion came
To ſtrengthen Nature's feeble frame;

Submiſſion

Submiſſion in her hand ſhe led,
Reſign'd MARIA, bow'd her head.

Support each heaven-born virtue gave
To guide her through the dreary grave;
Each Chriſtian grace prepared the way,
And turn'd its darkneſs into day.

Angels impatient with deſire
To join her to their ſainted quire,
Watch'd the pale miniſter of death,
And eager caught her parting breath.

Methinks thus chants the heavenly train;—
"MARIA dead ——— now lives again.
"Trace her, ye mourners in the ſky,
"Enrobed with immortality.

"Exalted there by faith and truth,
"In radiance of celeſtial youth;
"With harp ſymphonious in her hands
"Behold your angel ſiſter ſtands."

LINES intended to repreſent the Effects of ILL PLACED LOVE.

[An original Communication.]

"Non enim poſthac alia calebo
"Fœmina."

"Ridet hoc, inquam, Venus ipſa; riden
"Simplices nymphæ; ferus & Cupido,
"Semper ardentes acuens ſagittas
"Cote cruenta."

WHO that has ſeen enchanting Lucy's face?
Whoſe looks are Loves, whoſe ev'ry motion, grace,
Would e'er believe, ſo fair a form could hide,
Envy's ſlow poiſon—ſelf-tormenting pride.
Who that has heard her gentle accents riſe?
Soft as a love-ſick Zephyr's whiſper'd ſighs,
What time the modeſt lily of the vale,
Yields to the preſſure of the wanton gale;
Would think that Lucy oft a fury raves,
Loud as the blaſts that laſh the foaming waves.
True ſhe can weep, with tears ſhe can beguile,
Like Egypt's reptile, tyrant of the Nile!
To miſchief prone, ſhe glories in a ſtorm!
Yet hell's worſt demon wears an angel's form.

Who

Who that has known her maiden wiſhes fly,
Cold as the flakes that ſhroud a wint'ry ſky,
Would e'er ſuſpect a veſtal ſo demure,
Pants for the pleaſures of a low amour;
Or think her vermil lips when clos'd conceal,
A ſcorpion tongue, more fell than murd'rer's ſteel.
Lavater's art firſt dragg'd each vice to view,
The Muſe this ſketch, as he deſcrib'd them, drew:
He ſhow'd her, haughty, cruel, falſe, and bold,
A baſe defamer, and an arrant ſcold.
A ſceptick ſtill, Lavater I upbraid,
Nor doubt the honour of my fav'ourite maid;
Audacious art! enrag'd I frequent cried!
By fancy foſter'd, and matur'd by pride!
'Gainſt goſpel rule, that bids us raſhly pry,
And ſcan a ſiſter's ſoul with with critic eye.
'Till jealous love impatient of ſuſpence,
Arm'd with an Argus' ken the pow'rs of ſenſe,
Nor watch'd they long, ere found a damning proof,
While trembling love, affrighted ſtood aloof——
Oh! for a curſe, accorded to my mind!
With one dread word, I'd blaſt all woman-kind!
On the brave ruin, I'd exulting look!
Proud of the blot I made in Nature's book!
Genius no more ſhould bow at beauty's ſhrine
Nor manly virtue, for an idiot pine!
To her falſe vows, I ſhould no longer truſt!
Whoſe friendſhip's intereſt! and whoſe love is luſt.
Thus raves a bard (ſhort quarrel with the fair)
Who ſtrives in vain to break her ſilken ſnare,
Revokes his curſe, her anger to remove,
Then pours the plaints of undiſſembled love.

So wounded Anthony in life's laſt ſcene
With tender accents call'd for Ægypt's queen,
On the fair fiend he fondly fix'd his eyes,
Since thou art true! the fainting hero cries!
To Cæſar's fortune! I the world reſign!
And die content, for Cleopatra's mine!

On Afric's coaſt where ſol's meridan ray
Shoots down direct—intolerable day!
Matur'd by heat—the baſking ſerpent lies,
In many a fold, and darts her diamond eyes;
Like burniſh'd gold her ſcales reflect the light,
Arreſt the ſtranger, and infuſe delight——
Near, and more near, he views her ſplendid form,
Then madly ſtoops, and ſtrokes the venom'd worm;
Pierc'd by her fangs, he faſcinated lies,
Laments his folly, and unpitied dies.

W. T.

SONNET

SONNET to JULIA.

[By the Same Hand.]

I Own, victorious maid, thy potent charms!
They on my paſſions all defenceleſs ſeize!
If e're the Muſes did thy fancy pleaſe,
Protect their vot'ry from love's fatal harms,
For poëſy his breaſt with rapture warms;
In deathleſs ſong thy merit ſhall be known;
To nations yet unborn thy beauty ſhewn:
O! ſooth his heart which pants with ſoft alarms.
Pierce not a bard ſubmiſſive to thy pow'r,
Aid him to 'ſcape the ſhafts of Cupid's ire,
And lead him far from love's enchanted bow'r,
So ſhall the Nine his grateful verſe inſpire,
Immortal fame they'll give thee as thy dow'r,
For teaching him to temper fierce deſire. W. T.

SONNET to the MUSES.

[By the Same.]

SEductive poeſy! I renounce your aid!
Sincerely ſick no ſuccour you impart,
Pernicious ſoftner of the manly heart!
With ſuch addreſs your poiſon is convey'd,
With ſuch addreſs your boaſted help diſplay'd,
That griev'd I urge the Muſes to depart,
For oh! I feel fierce love's envenom'd darts;
Again the Syrens do almoſt perſuade!
Alas! they foſter ills they cannot cure,
Augment my paſſion and my reaſon blind,
They promiſe love's elyſium ſhall endure:
They promiſe Julia will ere long be kind—
Muſes farewell! your aid but works me wrong;
Gold wins the fair! few heed the poet's ſong. W. T.

SONNET to HOPE.

[By the Same.]

HOPE that cheers others with deluſive views!
Welcome deceiver! never viſits me,
Her fairy viſions of futurity,
Fly a ſad, penſive, melancholy muſe,
Whoſe moody workings o'er my mind diffuſe

Dark thoughts, that fright the nymph Hilarity,
Unmeet aſſociate for adverſity!
The path ſcarce trod, the midnight hour I chooſe,
Life's liſt of ills and follies to ſurvey,
Behold weak man in queſt of trifles toil,
See Prieſtcraft all its mummery diſplay
And Superſtition Reaſon's empire foil,
But men's foul crimes, ſuch horrors do convey
I ſtart appall'd and from myſelf recoil. W. T

SONNET to MELANCHOLY.

[By the Same.]

COME melancholy for I court thee ſtill!
As erſt come mutt'ring with a downcaſt eye
Regardleſs of yon ſplendid vernal ſky!
Come! and of anguiſh let me take my fill,
Seize my whole boſom, there in ſecret kill!
Far from the haunts of men with thee I'd fly,
Mature my grief, and when reſolv'd to die,
Fell Suicide, obſequious to thy will,
Shall haſte with ſtagg'ring ſtep, and haggard look,
Her bowl well drugg'd, her dagger drench in blood,
She all impetuous no delay can brook,
But hurries on the deed in deſp'rate mood;
To horrid acts woe-haunted minds are driv'n,
A wounded ſpirit needs the care of heav'n.

W. T.

LINES written by MARY Queen of SCOTS, on the loſs of her Huſband FRANCIS II. of FRANCE, with an Engliſh Tranſlation.

[From ANDREW's Anecdotes, &c.]

EN mon triſte & doux chant,
D'un ton fort lamentable,
Je jette un œil tranchant,
De perte incomparable,
Et en ſoupirs cuiſans
Paſſe mes meilleurs ans.

IN melting ſtrains that ſweetly flow,
Tun'd to the plaintive notes of woe:
My eyes ſurvey with anguiſh fraught,
A loſs beyond the reach of thought:
While paſs away life's faireſt years
In heaving ſighs and mournful tears.

Fut-il un tel malheur,
De dure Deſtinée,
Ny ſi triſte douleur
De dame fortunée,

Did cruel Deſtiny e'er ſhed
Such horror on a wretched head?
Did e'er once happy woman know
So ſad a ſcene of heart-felt woe?

Qui

Qui mon cœur & mon oeil
Vois en bierre & cercueil ?

Qui, en mon dou pritemns,
Et fleur de ma jeuneſſe,
Toutes les peines ſens
D'une extrême triſteſſe,
Et en rien n'ay plaiſir,
Qu'en regret & deſir.

Ce qui m'eſtoit plaiſant
Ores m'eſt peine dure,
Le jour le plus luiſant
M'eſt nuit noire & obſcure,
Et n'eſt rien ſi exquis,
Qui de moy ſoit requis.

J'y au cœur, & à l'oeil,
Un portrait & image,
Qui figure mon deuil ;
Et mon paſle viſage,
De violettes teint,
Qui eſt l'amoureux teint.

Pour mon mal eſtranger,
Je ne m'arreſte en place ;
Mais, j'en ay beau changer,
Si ma douleur j'efface ;
Car mon pis & mon mieux,
Sont mes plus deſerts lieux.

Si en quelque ſejour,
Soit en bois ou en prée,
Soit pour l'aube de jour ;
Ou ſoit pour la veſprée,
Sans ceſſe mon cœur ſent
Le regret d'un abſent,

Si par fois vers ces lieux,
Viens a dreſſer ma veüe,
Le doux trait de ces yeux,
Je vois en une nüe ;
Soudain je vois en l'eau.
Comme dans un tombeau.

Si je ſuis en repos,
Sommeillant ſur ma couche,
J'oye qu'il me tient propos,
Je le ſens qu'il me touche ;

For ah ! behold on yonder bier
All that my heart and eyes held dear.

Alas ! even in my blooming hours,
Mid opening youth's reſplendent flowers,
I'm doom'd each cruel pang to ſhare,
Th' extremeſt ſorrows of deſpair,
Nor other joy nor bliſs can prove
Than grief and diſappointed love.

The ſweet delights of happier days,
New anguiſh in my boſom raiſe,
Of ſhining day, the pureſt light
To me is drear and gloomy night ;
Nor is there aught ſo good and fair,
As now to claim my ſlighteſt care.

In my full heart and ſtreaming eyes,
Portray'd by woe, an image lies,
Which fable robes but faintly ſpeak,
Or the pale languor of my cheek,
Pale as the vi'let's faded leaf,
The tint of love's deſpairing grief.

Perplex'd by this unwonted pain,
No place my ſteps can long detain,
Yet change of ſcene no comfort gives,
Where ſorrow's form for ever lies.
My worſt, my happieſt, ſtate of mind,
In ſolitude alone, I find.

If chance my liſtleſs footſteps leads
Thro' ſhady groves, or flowery meads,
Whether at dawn of riſing day,
Or ſilent evening's ſetting ray,
Each grief that abſence can impart,
Inceſſant rends my tortur'd heart.

If to the heavens, in rapturous trance,
I haply throw a wiſtful glance,
His viſionary form I ſee,
Pictur'd in orient clouds ; to me,
Sudden it flies, and he appears,
Drown'd in a wat'ry tomb of tears.

Awhile if balmy ſlumbers ſpread,
Their downy pinions o'er my head,
I touch his hand in ſhadowy dreams,
His voice to ſoothe my fancy ſeems.

Et labeur, en recoy,
Tousjours eſt preſt de moy.

When wak'd by toil, or lull'd by reſt,
His image ever fills my breaſt.

Je ne vois autre objet,
Pour beau qu'il ſe préſente
A qui que ſoit ſubjet
Oncques mon cœur conſente,
Exempt de perfection,
A cette affliction.

No other object meets my ſight,
Howe'er in robes of beauty dight,
Which to my ſad deſpairing heart,
One tranſient wiſh will e'er impart;
Exempt from that unalter'd woe,
Which this ſad breaſt muſt ever know.

Mets, Chanſon, icy fin,
A ſi triſte complainte,
Dont ſera le refrein
Amour vraye & non feinte
Pour la ſéparation,
N'aura diminution.

But ceaſe my ſong—Ceaſe to complain!
And cloſe the ſadly plaintive ſtrain,
To which, no artificial tears,
But love unfeign'd the burthen bears.
Nor can my ſorrows e'er decreaſe,
For ah! his abſence ne'er can ceaſe.

VERSES on ſome Medallions made by Mr. WEDGEWOOD, of Clay, brought from Sydney Cove, and preſented to him by Sir JOSEPH BANKS.

[By Dr. DARWIN.]

WHERE Sydney Cove her lucid boſom ſwells,
Courts her young navies, and the ſtorm repels;
High on a rock, amid the troubled air,
HOPE ſtood ſublime, and wav'd her golden hair;
Calm'd with her roſy ſmile the toſſing deep,
And with ſweet accents charm'd the winds to ſleep;
To each wild plain ſhe ſtretch'd her ſnowy hand,
High-waving wood, and ſea-encircled ſtrand.
"Hear me (ſhe cried) ye riſing realms! record
Time's opening ſcenes, and truth's unerring word.—
There ſhall broad ſtreets their ſtately walls extend,
The circus widen, and the creſcent bend:
There raiſed from cities o'er the cultur'd land,
Shall bright canals, and ſolid roads expand.—
There the proud arch, coloſſus-like, beſtride
Yon glitt'ring ſtreams, and bound the chaſing tide;
Embelliſh'd villas crown the landſcape-ſcene,
Farms wave with gold, and orchards bluſh between.—
There ſhall tall ſpires, and dome-capp'd towers aſcend,
And piers and quays their maſſy ſtructures blend;
While with each breeze approaching veſſels glide,
And northern treaſures dance on ev'ry tide!"
Then ceaſed the nymph—tumultuous echoes roar
And JOYS's loud voice was heard from ſhore to ſhore—

Her

Her graceful steps, descending, press'd the plain,
And PEACE, and ART, and LABOUR joined her train.

SONNET to MAY, from the Second Part of the BOTANIC GARDEN.

[By the Same.]

BORN in yon blaze of orient sky,
Sweet MAY! thy radiant form unfold;
Unclose thy blue voluptuous eye,
And wave thy shadowy locks of gold.

For thee the fragrant zephyrs blow,
For thee descends the sunny shower;
The rills in softer murmurs flow,
And brighter blossoms gem the bower.

Light Graces dress'd in flowery wreaths
And tiptoe Joys their hands combine;
And Love his sweet contagion breathes,
And laughing dances round thy shrine.

Warm with new life the glitterring throngs
On quivering fin and rustling wing,
Delighted join their votive songs,
And hail the goddess of the spring.'

DESCRIPTION of DISTRESSES occasioned by the SLAVE TRADE.

[From STANFIELD's Guinea Voyage.]

IN the thick gloom of yonder pensive shade
Is lost Abyeda's wretched form display'd,
Abyeda, once among the vocal throng
The theme and mistress of each rural song:
Once the blithe leader of each festive scene,
That woke the music of the joyous green.
Ne'er did such nymph before her brightness lave
Within Formosa's deep, translucent wave.
O'er her smooth form grace threw her waving line,
And beauty wandered in the rich design.
Unrival'd long had liv'd the happy maid;
And many a hero had her love essay'd.
But youthful Quam'no was the virgin's pride;
Her friend, protector, and her faithful guide.

Faſt by her ſide he kept his guardian way,
Leaſt treach'rous Whites ſhould ſeize the tempting prey.
The freſh'ning cocoas from their height he bore,
Cluſt'ring bananas ſpread their juicy ſtore,
The ſpotted ſpoils too deck'd her rural bow'r,
When from the chace, in the dear ev'ning hour,
Glowing, ſhe met him with the welcome ſmile;
Pleas'd, and yet anxious at the manly toil.

'And now through dewy dawn, the riſing ray
Lights up the radiance of their bridal-day.
With early nymphs within the buſy room,
Amidſt the labours of the flying loom
Of vivid tints ſhe plied the various thread;
The long-plann'd work to grace the nuptial bed.
With beating ſteps reſounds the hollow floor;
To rapid ſtrokes reſponds the clam'rous door.
With breathleſs energy ſhe flies amain,
To meet her Quam'no and the bridal train.
Alas! no Quam'no meets her eager eye—
In ruſh the ſpoilers with deteſted cry,
Seize with rapacious force the trembling prey;
And to the ſhore the hapleſs maid convey.

'When urg'd by rage, or hunger's burning force,
The rav'ning lion winds his furious courſe,
And through the herd his bloody paſſage ploughs;
So Quam'no ruſhes through the crowd of foes.
Carves his fierce way, entwines the fainting maid:
With vain protection;—lo! a treach'rous blade,
Darted behind him with unerring aim,
Impales him deep; convolv'd the bleeding frame,
Plunges indignant o'er the tainted ground,
Life rolls his torrent through the yawning wound,
O'er his fierce eyes death's hideous ſhadows move
With ſable veil, and ſhut out light and love.
Abyeda now upon the lifeleſs form,
Sinks in deſpair beneath the trying ſtorm.
The murd'rous ſtroke that mark'd his early tomb,
Involves her intellects in deadly gloom.
Her wounded reaſon the ſad manſion flies;
Senſe wanders widely, and reflection dies!

'Now (ſcourges having long their fury ſpent)
Gloomy and ſad, beneath oppreſſion bent,
Round her gall'd neck the feſt'ring iron winds,
And to the gloomy maſt oppreſſive binds.
Sad ſtrains of feeble melancholy flow;
Half-meaning fragments of recorded woe,
In wild ſucceſſion break the penſive lay,
Through the drear night and lamentable day.

Her ſad aſſociates liſt the melting tones,
And join each cadence with according groans.
But ſick'ning nature with the burden reels;
O'er her wan face the deadly jaundice ſteals;
The ſpirits die; the nerveleſs limbs unſtrung;
With mortal gripe the wounded heart-ſtrings wrung
Fix'd her ſunk eye—her love-lorn ditty fails,
Life beats tumultuous 'gainſt the feeble pales—
Convulſive throbs expel the final breath,
And o'er the fatal cloſe ſits ghaſtly death.

DESCRIPTION of a ſtill SUMMER's EVENING.

[From the VILLAGE CURATE.]

ALCANOR, come, and let us once again
Deſcend into the valley, and enjoy
The ſober peace of the ſtill ſummer's eve.
We have no bluſh to loſe; our freekled cheek
The ſun not bliſters, nor the night-dew blaſts.
Such is the time the muſing poet loves.
Now vigorous imagination teems,
And, warm with meditation, brings to birth
Her admirable thought. I love to hear
The ſilent rook to the high wood make way
With hiſſing wing; to mark the wanton mouſe,
And ſee him gambol round the primroſe head,
'Till the ſtill owl comes ſmoothly ſailing by.
And with a ſhrill to-whit breaks off his dance,
And ſends him ſcouring home; to hear the cur
Of the night-loving partridge, or the ſwell
Of the deep curfew from afar. And now
It pleaſes me to mark the hooting owl,
Perch'd on the naked hop-pole, to attend
The diſtant cataract, or farmer's cur
That bays the northern lights or riſing moon.
Then let me ſteal along the woody lane,
To hear thy ſong ſo various, ſweet bird,
The queen of night, tranſporting Philomel;
I name thee not to give my feeble lines
A grace elſe wanted, for I love thy ſong,
And often have I ſtood to hear thee ſing,
When the clear moon, with Cytherean ſmile,
Emerging from an eaſtern cloud, has ſhot
A look of pure benevolence and joy
Into the heart of night. Yes, I have ſtood
And marked thy varied note, and frequent pauſe,
Thy briſk and melancholy mood, with heart
Sincerely pleas'd. And, O! methought no note

Can equal thine, ſweet bird, of all that ſing
How eaſily the chief! Yet have I heard
What pleaſes me ſtill more; the human voice
In ſerious ſweetneſs flowing from the heart
Of unaffected woman. I could hark
Till the round world diſſolv'd to the pure ſtrain
Love teaches, gentle modeſty inſpires.

ODES of HORACE, lately diſcovered in the PALATINE LIBRARY at ROME.

ODE I.

Ad JULIUM FLORUM.

DIſcolor grandem gravat uva ramum;
Inſtat Autumnus: glacialis anno
Mox hyems volvente aderit, capillis
Horrida canis.
Jam licet Nymphas trepidè fugaces
Inſequi, lento pede detinendas;
Et labris captæ, ſimulantis iram,
Oſcula figi.
Jam licet vino madidos vetuſto
De die lætum recitare carmen:
Flore, ſi te des hilarem, licebit
Sumere noctem.
Jam vide curas Aquilone ſparſas?
Mens viri fortis ſibi conſtat, utrùm
Seriùs lethi, citiùſve triſtis
Advolat hora.

ODE II.

Ad LIBRUM SUUM.

DUlci libello nemo ſodalium
Forſan meorum charior extitit.
De te merenti quid fidelis
Officium domino rependes?
Te Roma cautum territat ardua?
Depone vanos invidiæ metus;
Urbiſque fidens dignitati,
Per plateas animoſus audi.
En quo furentes Eumenidum choros
Disjecit almo fulmine Jupiter?
Huic ara ſtabit, fama cantu
Perpetuo celebranda creſcet.

DOMESTIC LITERATURE

Of the Year 1789.

OUR hiſtory of the Domeſtic Literature of the year 1789, commences, according to our eſtabliſhed method, with Theology. In endeavouring to lay before our readersa conciſe view of the reſpective publications which have appeared in this department of literature, we ſhall, in the firſt place introduce to their notice ſuch works as are connected with ſacred criticiſm. In this number we muſt claſs the "New Tranſlation of the Pentateuch; being a thorough Correction of the preſent Tranſlation, whenever it deviates from the genuine Senſe of the Hebrew Expreſſions, or where it renders obſcure the Meaning of the Text; or laſtly, where it occaſions a ſeeming Contradiction &c. by Iſaac Delgado, Teacher of the Hebrew Language." This work is far from being deſtitute of merit. In ſeveral inſtances the ſenſe of the original is rendered more faithfully than in our common verſion; and many of the author's critical notes are ingenious and uſeful. Some of his alterations, however, tend rather to obſcure than to illuſtrate the ſacred text; and his comment is occaſionally founded on the abſurd expoſitions and doctrines of the Rabbins. Had Mr. Delgado, inſtead of following ſuch fanciful guides, availed himſelf of the aſſiſtance which he might have derived from the labours of many learned moderns, particularly from the collations of Kennicott and de Roſſi, he would not have diminiſhed his reputation as a liberal ſcholar, and judicious critic.

Of a ſimilar character is "The Pentateuch, or five Books of Moſes, in Hebrew, with the Engliſh Tranſlation on the oppoſite Page, with Notes explanatory, practical, critical and grammatical, by Lion Soeſmans; corrected and tranſlated by David Levi, in 5 vols. 8vo." Lion Soeſmans appears to have been well acquainted with the Talmudical writings: and Mr. Levi is entitled to the praiſe of diligence and attention, both as tranſlator and editor. The Hebrew characters of this edition are large and beautiful, and accompanied with all the Maſſoretic points and accents. In the margin we meet with the ſhorter Maſſora; and at the end of each volume with the Haphtorath, or ſuch parts of the prophetical writings as are read in the Jewiſh ſynagogues, along with relative portions of the law.

"During the preſent year the public have received from Dr. Geddes, "Propoſals for printing by Subſcription, a new Tranſlation of the Holy Bible, from corrected Texts of the Originals; with various Readings, explanatory Notes, and

and critical Obſervations. With Specimens of the Work." Of the principles on which Dr. Geddes meant to proceed in this tranſlation, we took occaſion to expreſs our favourable opinion in a former volume, when we announced his "Proſpectus" of this work. In an "Appendix to that Proſpectus, which was ſeperately publiſhed in the form of a letter to the late biſhop of London, Dr. Geddes ſuggeſted a variety of queries, doubts, and difficulties relative to a vernacular verſion of the holy ſcriptures. And we doubt not but that he will join with us in lamenting, that the infirmities and death of the learned prelate deprived the world of the advantages which would have ariſen from his endeavours at the ſolution of them: a province for which he was peculiarly qualified, by his intimate acquaintance with Hebrew literature, ſtrong critical diſcernment, and delicate taſte.—By this Appendix our author has afforded us additional conviction, that he is not deficient in ſome of the principal qualifications required in a tranſlator of the ſcriptures. The "Propoſals" of Dr. Geddes, beſide containing the conditions of ſubſcription, ſubmit to the world ſpecimens of his tranſlation and notes, conſiſting of the firſt chap. of Geneſis, the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth chaps. of Exodus, and the ſixteenth Pſalm. From theſe ſpecimens the impartial reader will be led to entertain a very high opinion of the learning and induſtry of the author; and to join with us, in heartily wiſhing him ſucceſs in his very laborious and important undertaking. We cannot, however, but expreſs our hope, that the candour and good ſenſe of Dr. Geddes will lead him to retain, as much as is poſſible, the ſimplicity of our preſent verſion; and to admit only of ſuch alterations as a regard to dignity, propriety, or perſpicuity neceſſarily requires.

Mr. Wrighte's "Explanation of the two firſt Chapters of the Book of Geneſis," is a work not undeſerving of the attention of the learned world. The author, apprehending that there is little proſpect of obtaining an accurate tranſlation of the Hebrew Bible, is zealous in recommending an accurate and literal verſion of the Septuagint, to be carried on under the inſpection and controul of perſons properly qualified to ſuperintend and conduct the undertaking; and offers his own tract, not ſo much as a ſpecimen of ſuch an undertaking, as with a view to convince the reader, that there is nothing incoherent, unintelligible, or abſurd, in the ſhort hiſtory which Moſes gives of the creation. Notwithſtanding that we concur with the author in valuing the Greek verſion of the Hebrew Scriptures as a very precious relic of antiquity, yet we can by no means think that the moſt accurate tranſlation from it would ſupply the place of one from the original. Neither can we poſſibly conceive a reaſon why we may not expect a more accurate and faithful tranſlation from the original than from the Greek verſion; eſpecially when we conſider with what indefatigable aſſiduity the labours of the firſt orientaliſts of the age are employed in eſtabliſhing the true ſtate of the Hebrew text. With reſpect to the mode in which Mr. Wrighte has conducted his explanation, although we think that it is ſometimes too fanciful and hypothetical, yet it diſcovers frequent proofs of his abilities and ingenuity: and many of his remarks are inſtructive and uſeful.

"In our account of the Domeſtic

e Literature of the year 1788, we ave ſome account of the firſt vol. of A ſhort and plain Expoſition of the)ld Teſtament &c. by the late Rev. ob Orton; publiſhed from the au- ıor's MSS. by Robert Gentle- ıan." During the preſent year ıe editor has publiſhed the ſecond ıd third volumes of that work, vhich comprehend the books of cripture from Leviticus to IId Chronicles, incluſive. To the ſe- ond volume Mr. Gentleman has refixed a ſenſible, though plain, diſ- ourſe of the author, on the uſeful- eſs of the hiſtorical part of the)ld Teſtament. This diſcourſe was elivered by Mr. Orton at the cloſe f his expoſition of that part of cripture; and is very properly pub- iſhed by the editor, at the deſire f ſeveral of his friends, whom he onſulted. With reſpect to the ge- ıeral merits of this work, we refer our readers to the character that ve gave of the firſt volume, which s applicable to thoſe before us.

Among ſuch publications in this department of literature, as are of ſuperior merit and importance, a conſpicuous place is due to "The Four Goſpels, tranſlated from the Greek; with preliminary Diſſerta- tions, and Notes critical and expla- natory, by George Campbell, D. D. F. R. S. E. Principal of the Mariſ- chal College, Aberdeen, in 2 vols." The firſt volume conſiſts of a ſenſi- ble and well written preface, in which the author gives an account of the nature of his work, and ob- viates the objections which have been made by many well-meaning men againſt a new tranſlation of any part of ſcripture; and of twelve preli- minary diſſertations, which are re- gular introductions, one to another, and which are intended to explain ſuch circumſtances as may enable the readers more juſtly to appreciate the merits of the ſucceeding work. The firſt diſſertation contains obſer- vations on the language and idiom of the New Teſtament; on the di- verſity of ſtyle, and on the inſpi- ration of the ſacred writers. The ſecond treats of the cauſe of the difference of language, and the principal difficulties in tranſlating the ſacred books. The third is on the ſtyle of the Goſpels, and diſ- cuſſes the objections of the cele- brated F. Simon againſt the per- ſpicuity of the Scripture ſtyle. The fourth diſſertation contains many excellent obſervations on the right method of proceeding in the critical examination of the books of the New Teſtament. In the fifth, ſixth, and ſeventh, Dr. Campbell endeavours to aſcer- tain the proper meaning of ſome particular words and phraſes; the differences of ſome words common- ly thought ſynonymous; and the import of ſome titles of honour which occur in the New Teſtament. The eighth and ninth diſſertations contain a variety of obſervations on the manner of rendering ſome words, to which there are not any that perfectly correſpond in modern languages. The two following diſ- ſertations point out the chief ob- jects to be attended to by a tranſla- tor; and the regard which, in tranſlating Scripture into Engliſh, ought to be paid to former tranſla- tors. The twelfth and laſt diſſer- tation contains a more particular account of what the author has at- tempted in his ſubſequent perform- ance. Of theſe preliminary trea- tiſes it is not eaſy to ſpeak in too high terms. The ſecond volume contains Dr. Campbell's tranſlation and notes. With reſpect to the tranſlation of the four Goſpels, it is, in general, perſpicuous, faith- ful, and accurate. Sometimes we find

find ourſelves obliged to diſſent from our reſpectable author, and to call in queſtion the propriety of his alterations of our common verſion: but the blemiſhes that we imagine that we perceive in his valuable work, are trifling indeed, when oppoſed to its preponderating excellences. Dr. Campbell's notes are principally philological and critical. They contain much curious information; and, together with his admirable diſſertations, poſſeſs uncommon proofs of judgment, learning, candour, and liberality; and eſtabliſh the author's claim to diſtinguiſhed honours among the writers in biblical criticiſm.

In the ſame reſpectable liſt muſt we place the "Obſervations upon the Expediency of reviſing the preſent Engliſh Verſion of the Four Goſpels, and the Acts of the Apoſtles; by John Symonds, LL. D. profeſſor of Modern Hiſtory in the Univerſity of Cambridge." The chief care of Dr. Symonds, as he informs us in his preface, has been to compare our preſent verſion with ſeveral tranſlations in different languages, which was actually done by king James's tranſlators; and to point out the principal faults in reſpect to the language of our own. Theſe faults he claſſes under the heads of ambiguities occaſioned by the antecedents, to which the relatives refer, not being clearly diſtinguiſhed; of ambiguities occaſioned by equivocal words or phraſes; of ambiguities occaſioned by an indeterminate uſe of prepoſitions; of paſſages ungrammatical; of mean and vulgar expreſſions; and of obſolete and harſh expreſſions. Under each of theſe heads our learned author introduces a number of well choſen inſtances on which he makes ſuch ingenious and excellent remarks as are well worth the attention of the biblical ſcholar. After this Dr. Symonds employs himſelf in eſtabliſhing the poſition that a verſion of the ſcriptures ſhould be as literal as the genius of the Engliſh tongue will allow; and in conſidering the exceptions to this poſition, which he exemplifies by a variety of appoſite quotations. On the whole, we have ſeldom met with a work in biblical criticiſm, from which we have received greater ſatisfaction than from the obſervations before us. In every part of them the author's aſſiduity and learning are conſpicuous, as well as his judgment and candour. And we rejoice to find that he has it likewiſe in contemplation to publiſh remarks upon the Epiſtles, if the reception given to the preſent work ſhould prove encouraging. Of this circumſtance we can entertain no doubt; and heartily congratulate the lovers of ſacred literature, on the great advantages which they may promiſe to themſelves from the future labours of Dr. Symonds.

Great praiſe, likewiſe, is due to Mr. Gilbert Wakefield, for his ſmall, but valuable treatiſe, entitled "A new Tranſlation of thoſe Parts only of the New Teſtament, which are wrongly tranſlated in our common Verſion." In this work the ingenious author has diſplayed much learning, and juſt critical taſte. And, notwithſtanding that ſome of his alterations may appear to us to be needleſs, or ill founded, we cannot withhold our warm approbation from his deſign, and general execution. He ſeems to have paid "a ſtudied attention to general utility and convenience"; and has introduced a variety of corrections and improvements which will be found highly ſerviceable in eſtabliſhing the true ſenſe and meaning of the inſpired writers.

On the "Actions of the Apoſtles, tranſlated from the original Greek, by

the rev. John Willis, B. D," cannot beſtow the applauſe ich the writings of the laſt men- ned authors have extorted from . The text Mr. Willis has divid- into four parts; and each of eſe into a certain number of ctions. To every ſection are add- proofs and illuſtrations, which ay rather be conſidered as a com- entary on the text than as afford- g the reader much critical inform- ion. As a tranſlator he is not to commended either for perſpicuity elegance. His ſtyle is uncouth and nbarraſſed; his phraſeology affect- and quaint; and his language is, caſionally, an offence againſt the mmon rules of grammar. But with l theſe imperfections, Mr. Willis s, in ſeveral inſtances, given a tter verſion than the vulgar one.

To the number of commentators the myſtical books of Scripture, e have now to add the name of Ir. Cooke, Greek profeſſor in the niverſity of Cambridge, who has ubliſhed "The Revelation, tranſ- ted and explained throughout; ith Keys, Illuſtrations, Notes and omments; a copious Introduction, rgument and Concluſion." After ndeavouring to ſupport St. John's aim to this book, and to oppoſe ne opinions of Mr. Lightfoot and Ir. Mede, Mr. Cooke proceeds to ay down his ſyſtem; from which, s far as we are capable of compre- ending it, we are free to acknow- edge that we have received no reater light than from the labours f former interpreters. The author, owever, is confident that, "with he illumination of God's Spirit," e is in poſſeſſion of a clue, by the ſſiſtance of which he has traced all he mazes of the wonderful laby- inth. Were we to attempt to lay efore our readers a general idea of Mr. Cooke's ſyſtem, we ſhould form a much larger article than our limits will admit. Thoſe who are fond of myſticiſm and obſcurity, may be aſſured that they will find in this work abundant food with which to gratify their mental palates. As to our author's ſtyle, it is perplexed, inaccurate, and ſpiritleſs; and on theſe accounts well adapted to the nature of his compoſition.

The firſt edition of the "Free Enquiry into the Authenticity of the firſt and ſecond Chapters of St. Matthews, Goſpel, &c. by John Williams, LL. D", was publiſhed before the commencement of our annual labours. During the preſent year a ſecond edition of that work has appeared, with corrections, and conſiderable enlargements. The object of the author is, to examine into the evidence of the genuineſs of theſe chapters as drawn from hiſtory; from the writings of the fathers, orthodox as well as heretical; from ancient MSS. and from the difficulties ariſing out of the narrative as it ſtands in the text commonly received, and when compared with the Old Teſtament hiſtory, the predictions of the prophets, and the teſtimony of contemporary hiſtorians. After a liberal and diſpaſſionate inveſtigation of his ſubject, the worthy author concludes, in language equally modeſt and candid, that "it would be wrong to pronounce theſe chapters certainly ſpurious; but that they ſhould be placed in the ſame liſt with other controverted parts of the New Teſtament, and ought not to be produced as evidence in any point of doctrine not ſupported by unqueſtionable parts of Scripture." Without taking it upon ourſelves to decide on the merits of the queſtion, we think that the arguments of Dr. Williams on the evidence by which he ſupports them, are too reſpect-

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ble to be treated with inattention and indifference. The truth of the Chriſtian revelation does not depend upon an implicit faith in the genuineſs of theſe chapters: nor can it be affected by the rejection of them. We could wiſh, however, to ſee an able and candid antagoniſt enter the liſts with our author. The queſtion would then be fully and calmly agitated; and the reſult muſt be favourable to the intereſts of ſacred literature, and of truth.

The worthy and reſpectable Dr. Henry Owen ſtill continues his uſeful labours in the ſervice of divine revelation The ſame laudable zeal and acuteneſs of diſcrimination which have marked his former critical productions, have been diſplayed by him, during the preſent year in a work entitled "The Modes of Quotation uſed by the Evangelical Writers, explained and vindicated." In this work Dr. Owen chiefly examines thoſe quotations which appear to have been introduced by the evangeliſts, in order to point out the intimate connection between the events of the life of Chriſt, and the prophecies recorded in the Old Teſtament. Theſe our author examines in ſeventy ſix different paſſages, and points out their coincidences and variations. Of thefe paſſages he ſhews that ſixty are conformable to ſome of the copies of the Septuagint in our hands; and the variations in the other inſtances he ſatisfactorily accounts for, from evident corruptions of the Septuagint, and from the ſuppoſition that the evangeliſts may have occaſionally tranſlated from the original; which ſuppoſition he confirms by reference to the Hebrew. The concluding part of this valuable work is employed in proving, that the prophecies in queſtion, were juſtly applied to Chriſt, or that they are to be conſidered as referring to him rather than to ſubjects more nearly connected with the times and the ſituations of the prophets. The well known character of Dr. Owen, and the importance of the ſubject on which his pen has been employed, will ſecure to this work a favourable reception from the Chriſtian world.

The "Hiſtory of Chriſt, for the Uſe of the Unlearned; with ſhort explanatory Notes, and practical Reflections by W. Dalrymple. D. D." is entitled to reſpectful notice, both from the excellent deſign with which it was compiled by its benevolent and pious author, and its own intrinſic value. The life of Chriſt is drawn from the evangeliſts, whoſe relations are harmonized when they relate to the ſame event, or connected when they refer to different tranſactions. In the narrative the language of the evangeliſts is endeavoured to be accommodated to the claſs of readers for which the work is principally deſigned, by ſhort explanatory clauſes; and by notes, and reflections which are ſenſible, pertinent, and uſeful. To the whole are added the teſtimonies of early Chriſtian writers, of Jewiſh and Heathen writers, and of ſceptical writers, in favour of the excellence of the Chriſtian diſpenſation. We heartily recommend the zealous and affectionate labours of this venerable paſtor to the acceptance of the public, and to thoſe ſtudents in divinity who have not an opportunity of conſulting a variety of authors.

As far as induſtry and a good intention have a claim to approbation, we are willing to award it to the rev. David Simpſon, M. A. for his four volumes entitled "Sacred Literature: ſhewing the Holy Scriptures to be ſuperior to the moſt celebrated

lebrated Writings of Antiquity, by the Teſtimony of above five hundred Witneſſes, and alſo by a Compariſon of their ſeveral kinds of Compoſition; to which are added Epiſtles and Extracts from ſome of the moſt early of the Chriſtian Fathers, &c. &c." This compilation conſiſts of a vaſt variety of quotations from authors of all deſcriptions, who have contributed to the elucidation of the ſacred writings both ancient and modern, and of all opinions orthodox and heterodox; which, as it may be ſuppoſed, form a ſtrange and heterogeneous maſs of reading. We muſt, however, do our author the juſtice to believe, from the quantity of materials which he has compreſſed into each volume, as well as from his own declaration, that he has been influenced by the beſt motives; and that his grand object was to ſupply Chriſtians of every rank and degree, with an uſeful moral and theological repoſitory, on reaſonable terms.

The "Remarks on the internal Evidences of the Chriſtian Religion, by Gilbert Wakefield, B. A." &c. are recommended by that learning and ingenuity which diſtinguiſh all the compoſitions of our author; and will be received with pleaſure by the friends of Chriſtianity. The evidences to which he particularly directs the attention of his readers, are drawn from the excellence of the Chriſtian morality, and doctrines; the conduct of Chriſt as an inſtructor, and the temper which he expreſſed on different occaſions; the honeſty with which the apoſtles relate their own failings; the peculiar complexion and phraſeology of St. John's Goſpel; many incidents interſperſed through the writings of the Evangeliſts, which prove their integrity and truth, &c. &c. On each of theſe topics, Mr. Wakefield expatiates in a conciſe and forcible manner: and draws his concluſions with logical preciſion, and the moſt unimpeachable candour and impartiality.

In our hiſtory of the domeſtic literature of the year 1787, we took notice of Dr. Prieſtley's Anſwer to the letters of David Levi, in which the Dr. complained of his antagoniſt's deficiency in candour and learning, and urged the arguments which he had advanced in his firſt Letter to the Jews, with redoubled force and ſpirit. During the preſent year the Jewiſh champion has once more entered the field with his "Letters to Dr. Prieſtley, in anſwer to his Letters to the Jews, Part II. alſo Letters to Dr. Cooper, in anſwer to his one great Argument in favour of Chriſtianity from a ſingle Prophecy; to Mr. Bicheno, &c. &c." A conſiderable part of theſe Letters is employed by Mr. Levi in attempting to vindicate himſelf from the charges which Dr. Prieſtley had brought againſt him. How far he has ſucceeded muſt be left to the diſpaſſionate ſentence of his readers. In the objections which our author continues to produce againſt Chriſtianity we find no new matter. They have been retailed by almoſt every writer againſt divine revelation; and have been as frequently confuted as they have been advanced. Mr. Levi's Anſwers to Dr. Cooper and his other correſpondents, are not deficient in ingenuity and ſhrewdneſs. He may gain occaſional advantage from the too great confidence or want of ſkill in a newly raiſed recruit, but he cannot ward off the blows of a practiſed veteran.

Among the other opponents who have entered the liſts with Mr. Levi, Dr. Krauter has ſhewn a laudable zeal for the honour of the Chriſtian

tian revelation in "A new, ſuccinct, and candid Examination of Mr. D. Levi's Objections againſt Jeſus Chriſt, and the Goſpel Hiſtory;" and in a "Supplement" to that treatiſe, occaſioned by a groſs miſrepreſentation of it in his letter to Dr. Prieſtley. But the zeal of this worthy writer is more than proportionate to his adroitneſs in uſing the weapons of controverſy: and in his Supplement he almoſt loſes ſight of that coolneſs and moderation which are ſo advantageous to the polemic. It muſt, however, be acknowledged, that he hath met with ſtrong provocation from his artful adverſary.

The "Epiſtle to the chief Prieſts and Elders of the Jews, by the Rev. Richard Beere," recommends itſelf by many ſenſible arguments, and judicious obſervations, which have afforded us inſtruction and pleaſure. But the author has in a great meaſure deſtroyed the value of his work, by the wonderful predictions with which it abounds, and the fanciful hypotheſes which he adopts. That our readers may not ſuſpect us of doing him injuſtice, it may be proper to inform them of his declaration to the Jews, that there are not thirty years to come ere their reſtoration ſhall take place; that Britain is the Tarſhiſh whoſe ſhips are to convey them to the land of their fathers; that the preſent war between the Ruſſians and the Turks is to be the means of reſcuing the Holy Sepulchre from the hands of the Infidels; that Rome and the Porte are the Sun and Moon which Daniel tells us ſhall be aſhamed and confounded at the reſtoration of the Jews; and that theſe powers are alſo the beaſt and falſe prophet! We will make no comment on theſe curious and hardy aſſertions.

Levi's "Diſcourſe to the Nation of the Jews," is the production of an unknown author, who appears to have aſſumed a name, under which he probably meant to attract the notice of the public, and to enſure the ſale of his pamphlet. As to the object and the opinions of the author, we find ourſelves totally incapable of aſcertaining them. That he is not a Jew will be concluded from his not conſidering the preſent ſtate of the Jews to be a continuation of the Babyloniſh captivity; and from his thinking that Herod rebuilt the temple of Jeruſalem, making a third temple. But it may not be of much importance to enquire into the motives of a writer for appearing in maſquerade, whoſe labours are not diſtinguiſhed by any excellences in his matter, arrangement, or language.

The author of "An Apology for profeſſing the Religion of Nature in the eighteenth Century of the Chriſtian Æra, &c." ſhould rather have entitled his treatiſe, an attack on the principles of natural religion, and the doctrine of a future ſtate. Taking it for granted that the doctrine of the ſoul's mortality is incontrovertibly eſtabliſhed by the materialiſts, and that Chriſtianity is, undoubtedly, an artful fabrication, he endeavours to prove that it is folly and cruelty to inſiſt on the belief of a future ſtate, and that a firm conviction of what he deems ſo rational and pleaſing a reflection, would produce the moſt ſalutary effects on the peace of individuals, and the proſperity of ſociety. Leaving our author's extravagant notions to be confuted by their own abſurdity, we ſhall only remark, that his publication is diſtinguiſhed throughout by a ſelf-ſufficiency and want of candour which are inconſiſtent with calm philoſophy; and that by not attacking, in an open and manly manner, the ſtrong hold of revela-

tion, he hath done little towards gaining attention and applauſe, excepting from thoſe who are the ſlaves of appetite, who will not, or who dare not enquire and think for themſelves. To this piece the author hath added a liturgy which, if not intended as a burleſque on liturgies, contains the curious and unaccountable effuſions of a mind that is profeſſedly fixed on "intelligible objects, ſenſible truths, and uſeful knowledge".

In controverſial Theology, the ſubjects which of late more particularly engaged the attention of the public were, the various opinions reſpecting the perſon of Jeſus Chriſt. To the other names who have ſtepped forth in defence of the popular and commonly received opinion we have now to add that of Dr. Knowles, prebendary of Ely, who publiſhed "Primitive Chriſtianity; or Teſtimonies from the Writers of the firſt four Centuries, to prove that Jeſus Chriſt was worſhipped as God, from the beginning of the Chriſtian Church." As we took up the work before us with the expectation of meeting with ſome new authorities, which had not already been produced and inveſtigated by the writers in this controverſy, we were not a little diſappointed when we found Dr. Knowles treading only in the old beaten track. We except, however, from this general remark, his endeavour to trace back the trinitarian doxologies to the uſage of the Jewiſh church, and to derive them from the triſagium in which the prophet Iſaiah, vi. 3. repreſents the ſeraphim chaunting to each other the glory of God. As far as any arguments drawn from this diſcovery may be conſidered to be of weight, the credit of them is unqueſtionably due to Dr. Knowles. His zeal alſo in defending the damnatory clauſe of the Athanaſian Creed, is an unequivocal proof of his orthodoxy. We only add, that we wiſh our author had not given us cauſe to ſuſpect his candour, by inſinuating an unſupported charge againſt the fairneſs and impartiality of the late excellent Dr. Lardner.

The reaſonings of the above mentioned writer have, in part, met with an able and formidable opponent in Mr. Capel Lofft, whoſe "Obſervations on the firſt Part of Dr. Knowles's Teſtimonies, in a Letter to a Friend," contain a variety of remarks on the authorities which that gentleman hath adduced from the writers of the firſt century. Their ſentiments may be conſidered as of ſome weight in the controverſy, ſince any propoſition of importance may be expected not to be obſcurely and ambiguouſly intimated by the writers of that early age, but to be explicitly recogniſed from the firſt; it ought to prove itſelf coeval, at leaſt, with the completion of the ſcripture code. In inveſtigating the arguments of Dr. Knowles, our author uniformly preſerves the character of a candid, liberal opponent; and his remarks diſcover great critical acumen, and extenſive learning. In an Appendix and Notes Mr. Lofft enters into a more particular diſcuſſion of ſeveral collateral ſubjects, which could only be referred to in the body of his letter.

The "Defence of the Unity of God, in four Letters to the rev. Mr. Harper, &c. by G. Clark," is the production of an author who appears to be well acquainted with the arguments reſorted to in this controverſy, and to poſſeſs a critical knowledge of the original languages of the ſacred ſcriptures. His faith is that of the Unitarians; which he ſeems to have adopted after a calm,

deliberate enquiry, and with great ſeriouſneſs of ſpirit. To this defence Mr. Clark has added Remarks on Mr. Romaine's Sermon on the Self-exiſtence of Jeſus Chriſt, and on the Rev. Mr. Hawkins's Letter to Dr. Prieſtley, which are written with judgment and preciſion, and with a temper and ſpirit that do honour to the author.

"The Replication; or a familiar Addreſs to Mr. William Frend, of Jeſus College, Cambridge, by George Townſend," is intended as an anſwer to Mr. Frend's challenge to Mr. Townſend, 1ſt, To produce any poſitive precept in ſcripture to worſhip Chriſt as God, and to pray to him, with examples to ſupport the ſame. 2dly, To mention the names of a few only of the many perſons who, as Mr. Townſend aſſerted, had left Socinianiſm for Mahometaniſm. With reſpect to the firſt part of this challenge, our replier has done nothing more than recapitulate, in a confuſed and incoherent manner, the texts which are uſually appealed to by polemical writers. Theſe he has not attempted to illuſtrate, or to ſupport that ſenſe of them for which he contends, by any new criticiſms. But his anſwer to the ſecond part of the challenge is ſtill more miſerably defective. Beſide being unable to bring forward the name of a ſingle perſon who could properly be claſſed under the required deſcription, he has been guilty of the groſs blunder of calling the emperor Julian a Socinian, and, what is ſtill groſſer, of calling him a Mahometan, although he died more than two centuries before Mahomet was born. But ſuch ignorance might have been pitied and forgiven, had the author diſcovered the leaſt traces of modeſty or candour. In theſe qualities, however, he is eſſentially defective; and in many parts of his pamphlet diſplays ſuch illiberality and preſumption, as muſt expoſe him to the ſevereſt cenſure of every impartial and rational mind.

A ſpirit the reverſe of what we have been condemning appears in "A Vindication of the Pre-exiſtence of Chriſt, conſidered in a practical View; humbly recommended to the Attention of the Serious, by Joſeph Corniſh." The principal object of this author is to prove, that our Lord's having had a glory with the Father before the world was, according to the ſenſe in which the advocates for the doctrine of the pre-exiſtence maintain theſe words, ſo far from leſſening the force and efficacy of his example, affords the ſtrongeſt motives to his followers, to endeavour after walking, even as he alſo walked. He further endeavours to ſhew, that the ſuppoſition of the conſciouſneſs which Chriſt had of his high dignity, renders his humility, his ſelf-denial, his meekneſs under ſtrong provocations, his benevolence, and his ſubmiſſion to the divine will, much more ſtriking and illuſtrious than on the Socinian ſcheme. On theſe topics our author expatiates in a ſenſible and ſerious manner; with candour and good temper. The arguments which he uſes, and the text of ſcripture by which he ſupports them, are ſuch as have been generally adduced by the ableſt defenders of the doctrine. His Socinian brethren, however, will except againſt his conſtruction of ſcripture; and queſtion the accuracy of his ſpiritual geography which places them under the frigid zone of religion.

The author of "A new Theory of Redemption, upon Principles equally agreeable to Revelation and Reaſon, in 2 volumes," propoſes to eſtabliſh

eſtabliſh an hypotheſis which equally avoids the difficulties of the Calviniſtic and Arminian ſyſtems in explaining the doctrine of original ſin, and of the atonement. Our author's ſyſtem is founded on the ſuppoſition that the reſentment of God againſt our firſt parents, ceaſing almoſt in the moment of offence, the ſentence of death was immediately reverſed; Adam and his poſterity were permitted to live, and the means of atonement were at once adopted. On this foundation he builds his creed, that if Chriſt had not died, then had all mankind periſhed; that every faculty and privilege of being that we now poſſeſs, is not in any place more plainly ſaid to belong to God, as its creator, than it is in other places to Chriſt as its redeemer; and that it is no more to be doubted that without his ranſom mankind would not have been after the fall, than that without creation they would have been before. This ſyſtem the author endeavours to ſupport by reaſonings on the neceſſity of atonement a priori, from original principles of revelation, and a deduction of the ſame particulars, a poſteriori, from fundamental principles of nature as well as revelation. To theſe ſucceed a philoſophical ſolution of the facts demonſtrated; conſiderations of their influence in a moral view; on the origin of evil, and the neceſſity of it in beings without reſtraint; and an examination of different texts in the New Teſtament which are ſuppoſed to relate to the doctrines of the fall and the atonement. The author of this work, if he hath added nothing very important to the attempts of former writers, and even left his reader diſſatisfied with reſpect to what has been deemed an important inquiry in this controverſy, viz. by what means the atonement was made acceptable to God, is, nevertheleſs, entitled to the praiſe of good ſenſe, and ingenuity: and his laborious attempt to free the orthodox ſyſtem from ſome of the gloomy ideas which Calviniſm has connected with it, is highly to the credit of his benevolence. But we cannot ſay that we find his arguments ſufficiently logical and concluſive to make us converts to his opinions.

The "Attempt to explain ſome of the Thirty-nine Articles, on ſcriptural Principles, by a Miniſter of the Church of England," exhibits to us a modification of thoſe articles, by a curate of the church, when in proſpect of a living; who, in an addreſs to ſome of his eccleſiaſtical ſuperiors, aſſures them, that it is only in the ſenſe here given, he can again bring his mind to renew his ſubſcription. One principal deſign of this publication is, to excite the attention of public characters to the lamentable ſituation in which many worthy and conſciencious clergymen are placed, who enquire into the nature and evidence of our holy faith. The author, after lamenting that ſince the days of the venerable Hoadley, we have been in a retrograde ſtate with reſpect to the long wiſhed-for, and much ſolicited removal of ſubſcription, and conformity to human creeds and articles of faith, urges, in terms which appeal to the compaſſion and humanity of men in power, the growing neceſſity of removing ſuch ſtumbling blocks of human introduction, to preſerve the godly ſimplicity and integrity of miniſters, and to prevent the increaſe of unbelievers. We lament, equally with the worthy author of this tract, the exiſtence of that evil of which he complains; and heartily join in

the wiſhes of many of the moſt learned and valuable of the clergy for their ſpeedy removal. If the edifice of the eſtabliſhment be worth preſerving, the neceſſary alterations which increaſing knowledge ſuggeſts, inſtead of injuring the fabric, can only add to its beauty, and ſecure its permanency.

The "Eſſays on Religious Subjects, by Joſeph Milner, A. M." are chiefly intended as an anſwer to the Eſſays of the late Mr. Ludlam, which we noticed in our laſt Annual Regiſter; particularly, to his Eſſay on the Influence of the Holy Spirit. In this treatiſe, Mr. Milner defends the tenets of Methodiſm with greater appearance of reaſon and argument than we uſually find in the publications of that party. His knowledge and his abilities are much above mediocrity. We wiſh that we could pay the ſame compliment to his candour and liberality. But the acrimony with which he treats the memory of Mr. Ludlam, is deſerving of ſevere reprehenſion. Why cannot the advocates for particular ſyſtems of faith, defend their opinions in the ſpirit of meekneſs? Is it becauſe they dread the touchſtone of calm inveſtigation? Or is it becauſe they are forgetful of the apoſtolic admonitions, that we ſhould not ſet at nought our brother, and that we ſhould judge nothing before the time?

It was with pleaſure, that, after dwelling on the enquiries which the laſt pamphlet ſuggeſted, we caſt our eyes on a treatiſe, entitled, "Reflections on Faith; in which is is ſhewn that no Difference of religious Opinions, is any reaſonable Ground for diſreſpect among Men, and eſpecially among Chriſtians." Theſe liberal and candid reflections, which are dedicated to Dr. Horſeley, and Dr. Prieſtley, if attended to, are adapted to produce the beſt effects on the minds of theological diſputants. They zealouſly recommend that truly Chriſtian ſpirit, under the influence of which "whatſoever is illiberal, and harſh, and arbitrary and uncharitable, will be carefully avoided, as worthy to excite nothing but diſguſt; and religious merit be allowed not only to be conſiſtent with any difference in particular religious opinions, but even to be derived from the very cauſe of that difference—a ſincere deſire and endeavour after information."

The ſubject of unſcriptural doxologies, on which a letter was laſt year addreſſed to the Miniſters of the Calviniſtic Baptiſts, has engaged the pens of different writers, who have, in their turns, attacked and defended that publication. Among others, the author of "Remarks on a Letter addreſſed to the Miniſters of the Orthodox or Calviniſtic Baptiſts, &c," endeavours to vindicate the practice of uſing ſuch doxologies. To his arguments replies have been made in "A Vindication of a printed Letter, &c." and "A Review of the Debate now in Agitation among the Baptiſts, &c." It is not our inclination, nor would it be acceptable to our readers, to deſcend to the particulars of this debate. We have noticed theſe pamphlets in order to preſerve the uniformity of our literary hiſtory: and we take our leave of them with remarking, that in point of argument and weight, the writers againſt the uſe of ſuch doxologies as are not to be found in ſcripture, have the advantage of their opponents. For they ſtand on the only tenable ground, the perfection and ſufficiency of the ſcriptures, without the addition of human improvements.

"Antipædopatiſm examined; or a ſtrict

a ſtrict Enquiry into the Deſign and Mode of Baptiſm, &c. by Edward Williams, in two Volumes," is a publication which does credit to the author's abilities and candour, and beſpeaks his intimate acquaintance with the ſubject on which he writes. He appears to have diligently purſued the queſtion through all its difficulties; and to have ſuffered none of the objections brought by thoſe who oppoſe infant-baptiſm to paſs by without being thoroughly ſifted and confuted. This verdict we give in his favour, without ſubſcribing to all his ideas on the nature and deſign of Baptiſm. The work before us includes, likewiſe, ſome judicious remarks on the nature of poſitive inſtitutions in general, and on human ceremonies in matters of religion, which will meet with approbation from the candid and diſpaſſionate reader.

Dr. Hales, rector of Killeſandra, and late fellow of Trinity College, Dublin, who in the year 1787 publiſhed ſome learned and ingenious obſervations on the influence of the doctrine of the pope's ſupremacy, hath, during the preſent year, ſubmitted to the attention of the public "A Survey of the Modern State of the Church of Rome," with additional obſervations on the ſubject of his former work. In this treatiſe he delivers the doctrine of the church of Rome, as collected from her canons, authoriſed catechiſms, and orthodox creeds: and he has illuſtrated theſe by the conceſſions of the moſt reſpectable and approved writers of that communion, and by a ſurvey of the practice and diſcipline of that church, through a long ſucceſſion of ages to the preſent day. The concluſion which he draws is, that the church of Rome is perſecuting and intolerant; and that the latitudinarian principles which pervade the writings of ſome Roman apologiſts of the preſent day, come to us in a very queſtionable ſhape. Notwithſtanding that Dr. Hales writes like a ſcholar and a gentleman, and has avoided every kind of acrimony and abuſe, we do not ſee the advantage which can be derived from ſuch a diſcuſſion, at this liberal and enlightened period. If it only tend to eſtabliſh the conviction, that the power of controuling or interfering with the religious liberties of others ſhould not be entruſted to any religious ſect or party, it will be well. But if it ſhould renew and inflame thoſe prejudices which were rapidly declining in the world, and excite the fears and bigotry of the ignorant and uninformed, it would not be an eaſy taſk to counteract the evil which it might produce.

Among ſuch theological treaties as relate to ſubjects of curious inveſtigation, we may rank "A Diſcourſe concerning the Reſurrection of Bodies, tending to ſhew, from the Writings of Heathens, Jews, and Chriſtians, that there are Bodies called our own, which will not be raiſed from the dead; that there are Bodies properly called our own, which will be raiſed from the dead. By what means the perfection and Immortality of the Reſurrection Bodies are to be obtained, and by whom effected." We have given the title of this pamphlet at length, as it will ſufficiently explain to our readers what the author's object is. It would be injuſtice not to add, that he ſupports his hypotheſis with ſuch powers of reaſoning, genius, and learning, as will afford ample gratification to thoſe who may be diſpoſed to peruſe his work.

"The Spiritual Body: being an humble Attempt to remove the Charge of Abſurdity from the Doctrine

of the Reſurrection, &c." is, likewiſe, the production of a ſenſible and ingenious writer, though his pages are not adorned with literary honours equal to thoſe of the laſt mentioned author. His object is to prove, that there is a ſpiritual body, diſtinct from the natural body, which exiſts after death, and will be raiſed at the laſt day, when the latter with which it is now interwoven ſhall be incorporated with the duſt. One expreſſion which the author uſes, that in what he has written he is ſure he could get no aſſiſtance from man, will be thought by many to ſavour either of enthuſiaſm, or of a very blameable ſelf-conceit.

Spiritualizing the objects and operations of nature hath been a favourite employment with many popular writers. Among the authors who have endeavoured to convey religious inſtruction in this form, we meet with the name of Mr. Samuel Saunders, whoſe "Theoſophical Eſſays on the Wiſdom and Goodneſs of God as ſeen and read in the Proceſs and Operation of Vegetative Nature," will not be unacceptable to the admirers of this ſpecies of compoſition. When we conſider the deſcription of readers for which theſe Eſſays are intended, we perſuade ourſelves that it is unneceſſary to try them by the rules of criticiſm, or ſtrictly to examine the juſtneſs of the author's analogical remarks.

"The Effuſions of the Heart; or heavenly Meditations and devotional Exerciſes, by Sophronia," contain a number of pious and uſeful reflections, which appear to have been dictated by a mind which felt the good impreſſions which it wiſhed to communicate to others. The ſubjects of them are, the Greatneſs of God's Mercy to Mankind; the Promiſes of God; Afflictions; Heaven; the Sufferings of Chriſt; the Love of God; and Death.

From the pen of Mr. Whiteley, who has been repeatedly honoured by the Norriſian Prize in the Univerſity of Cambridge, we have received another valuable little treatiſe, which hath been crowned with the wreath of merit. The ſubject of it is, "Voluntary Neglect of any one Duty, cannot be compenſated by Strictneſs of Attention to other Duties." In this Eſſay the author ſatisfactorily proves, from the declarations of God's word, and the analogy of his government, the impoſſibility of compenſating evil actions by thoſe that are good. His reaſonings are thoſe of a man habituated to thought, and logical deduction; and the language in which they are clothed is chaſte and elegant.

The "Addreſs to young Perſons after Confirmation, by Richard Watſon, Lord Biſhop of Landaff," is a publication which reflects the higheſt honour on the head and heart of that excellent prelate, and which we heartily recommend to the ſerious peruſal of our readers. In this little pamphlet, Dr. Watſon expoſes, with a maſterly hand, the prejudices of ſcepticiſm, and the deformity of vice; and recommends religion to the riſing generation in a manner that is peculiarly conciliating and impreſſive. And, while it is written in a ſtyle which is ſufficiently plain and clear for every claſs of readers, it is not defective in that ſtrength of ſentiment, and energy of diction, which characteriſe the other productions of the worthy author.

The "Letter to the Clergy of the Dioceſe of Sarum &c. by Shute,

Shute, Lord Biſhop of Sarum," contains the ſubſtance of two viſitation charges, delivered to the Salisbury clergy. It is divided into four parts, in which the following topics are diſcuſſed: Sunday ſchools; the king's proclamation, and the ſociety for carrying it into effect; the neceſſary repairs of churches and parſonage houſes; the ſtate and management of the fund ariſing from queen's Anne's bounty; the commutation of tythe for land; the duty of reſidence; directions to be obſerved in the appointment of curates; the dreſs, conduct, and ſtudies of the clergy; the caution to be uſed in giving teſtimonials for ordination; and the neceſſary preparation for taking orders. On each of theſe ſubjects his lordſhip enlarges with good ſenſe and moderation, apparently under the influence of a pious heart, and of a prevalent wiſh to promote the beſt intereſts of truth and virtue. We ſhall add, likewiſe, that in every part of this letter he diſcovers a zealous attachment to the intereſts of the church of England: ſo much ſo, that many will think that he carries it to exceſs, when, in pointing out the qualifications requiſite to the Chriſtian miniſtry, he ſeems to lay greater ſtreſs on an acquaintance with the Thirty-nine Articles, and with ſuch books as have been written to explain them, than with the New Teſtament itſelf. We are perſuaded that the worthy prelate hath incautiouſly fallen into a mode of writing which may bear ſuch a conſtruction; and that, however wedded to the eſtabliſhment and its ſyſtem, he is not inſenſible to the ſuperior regard which is due from himſelf and his clergy to the intereſts of Chriſtianity, and to the word of God.

The "Hints ſubmitted to the ſerious Attention of the Clergy, Nobility, and Gentry, newly aſſociated, by a Layman," are written with a degree of good ſenſe and liberality, that cannot fail to recommend them to general notice and acceptance. The object of the author is to aſſiſt the deſign of the new aſſociation, by pointing out to their conſideration ſome meaſures which, if adopted, may have a powerful effect in promoting piety and virtue, in diſcountenancing licentiouſneſs, and in checking the progreſs of infidelity. Theſe meaſures are, a more ſtrict attention in the higher ranks to religion in general, and particularly to public worſhip. And that theſe meaſures may be ſupported by the examples of a very large number of perſons of the beſt character and pureſt principles of religion, who are at preſent reſtrained by their conſciences from joining in the eſtabliſhed worſhip, he ſtrongly recommends a reviſal of our public ſervice and doctrines, that ſuch alterations may be introduced as are inherent and conſonant to the principles of the church of England, and to the religion of a Chriſtian proteſtant. We have ſeldom met with a publication more intereſting than that before us; which appeared to originate in purer and better motives; or which was better calculated to produce the effect deſigned on unprejudiced and diſpaſſionate minds. We ſincerely wiſh that the governors of our church may improve by theſe Hints. Should they meet the wiſhes of the worthy author, we entertain the ſame conviction with himſelf, that the intereſts and credit of the eſtabliſhment would receive the firmeſt ſupport, the religious ſects and parties which divide the kingdom would be much reduced in number and weight, and the cauſe

of infidelity and irreligion meet with a defeat, which would be followed by the moſt important and beneficial conſequences. Theſe Hints are ſaid to have been written by a nobleman of diſtinguiſhed rank.

We conſider the public, likewiſe, to be much indebted to the author of "Private Worth the Baſis of public Decency; an Addreſs to People of Rank and Fortune, dedicated to the Biſhop of London." This treatiſe is on the ſubjects of example, education, family deportment, and gratitude. The expoſtulations and advices which it contains, are of the moſt ſerious and general importance, and originated "in no cynical, invidious, or plebeian motive: but in a ſincere conviction that, as the ſoul is more precious than the body, heaven more deſirable than earth, and eternity more momentuous than time, the bleſſings of true religion proportionally tranſcend all others." The obſervations of the author are the dictates of knowledge and experience, aſſiſted by a thorough acquaintance with the manners of the higher ranks in life. The manner in which this addreſs is drawn up, is calculated to make impreſſion; and it is farther recommended by a ſtyle and language, which are nervous, elegant, and pleaſing.

The converts to the faith of baron Swedenborg are active and zealous in diſſeminating his opinions. During the preſent year they have extracted from his works, and publiſhed, "Paſſages concerning the Lord's Prayer, and its internal Senſe;" "Wiſdom's Dictates, or a Collection of Maxims and Obſervations concerning divine and ſpiritual Truths, and that Progreſs of Regeneration, or Renewal of Life from the Lord, which only is truly ſaving;" and a treatiſe on "Marriages in Heaven; and on the Nature of heavenly conjugal Love." Our readers are already ſufficiently acquainted with the vein of enthuſiaſm which runs through all the writings of baron Swedenborg. The treatiſes which we have enumerated above, are not deficient in this quality. It would at the ſame time be wrong in us not to acknowledge, that they contain many obſervations which are juſt and valuable. But we cannot think it worth while to be at the labour of extracting theſe from the crude and incomprehenſible ſyſtem by which they are overwhelmed, when they may be met with in numberleſs writers, eaſily to be procured, and eaſily to be underſtood.

When our account of the ſermons of the year 1788 was ſent to the preſs, we had not ſeen the volume on "The Grounds and Credibility of the Chriſtian Religion, preached at the Bampton Lecture, by the Rev. Richard Shepherd, D. D. F. R. S. Archdeacon of Bedford, and Chaplain to the Biſhop of Durham." In theſe ſermons the author hath preſcribed to himſelf a very extenſive plan. His introductory diſcourſe is employed in endeavours to diſtinguiſh between the excellence of Chriſtianity, and that variable rule of duty in the pretenſions of moral fitneſs held out by the Deiſt; and to point out the diſſimilarity between the principles of the Goſpel, and thoſe of the Nazarenes and Ebionites, and modern Socinians. In the next place Doctor Shepherd proves the exiſtence of God; and ſeverely animadverts on the opinions of thoſe who, while they acknowledge his being, would, by limiting his power, deprive him of all proper omnipotence. In the following diſcourſes he inſiſts on the doctrine of a particular as well

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as general Providence; the obligations of religion; the connection between religion and the ſocial duties; the neceſſity of a divine revelation; the divine pretenſions of the Moſaic diſpenſation; the general expectation of a Meſſiah entertained by the Jews, and the erroneous opinions which they had formed of his character: and concludes with an enquiry into the general ſcope and tenor of the ſcriptures of the New Teſtament, reſpecting the nature and character of Chriſt. On ſuch a variety of ſubjects it was impoſſible for Dr. Shepherd, to take more than a general view of the principal arguments. In executing this taſk he hath diſplayed conſiderable abilities and learning. But we cannot exculpate him from the charge of affectation in the choice and arrangement of his words, and in the manner and ſtyle of his diſcourſes. And we cannot but think that he hath injured his cauſe, when pleading againſt the Socinians, by the ſtudied harſhneſs of his expreſſions and the illiberality of his inſinuations.

Among the ſermons of the year 1789, the firſt place in point of order as well as merit is due to the ſecond volume of "Sermons on different Subjects left for Publication by John Taylor LL.D. late Prebendary of Weſtminſter." The diſcourſes which compoſe this volume poſſeſs ſimilar merit with thoſe in the firſt. And we meet in them with the ſame internal evidences of their having been the productions of Dr. Johnſon's forcible and inſtructive pen. For an account of their general merits, we refer our readers to what was ſaid of the former volume in our laſt year's Regiſter.

The "Diſcourſes on different Subjects, by the reverend Richard Pollwhele, in two Volumes," are entitled to a conſiderable ſhare of praiſe. In ſuch of them as are employed on ſubjects of ſyſtematic theology, the author adopts the popular and eſtabliſhed opinions; which he accommodates to various ſcenes that are drawn by him with a maſterly hand, and embelliſhed by the powers of a glowing fancy. He hath alſo diſcovered much ingenuity and addreſs in his ſtatement of ſome of the arguments in favour of Chriſtianity; and in his delineation of the beautiful ſimplicity, and admirable tendency of that religion. But the moſt acceptable and pleaſing of his diſcourſes are thoſe which contain ſtrictures on ſome of the characters and incidents of the Old Teſtament hiſtory, or which exhibit pictures of modern life and manners. In theſe the reader will meet with many judicious and uſeful obſervations; which diſplay the author's intimate acquaintance with human nature, and may be peruſed with conſiderable advantage. With reſpect to the ſtyle and compoſition of theſe diſcourſes, it is, in general, chaſte and elegant, and exemplifies, with no ſmall ſucceſs, the precepts laid down by the author in his Engliſh Orator.

The four volumes containing "One hundred and twenty popular Sermons, by Philip Pyle, A. M." are employed in a familiar elucidation of the doctrines of natural and revealed religion, and a ſerious and practical recommendation of the moral duties. Several of theſe ſermons, are the productions of Mr. Pyle's late father, whoſe merits as a writer are well known, and whoſe ſtyle and manner his ſon has imitated with conſiderable ſucceſs. The reader who ſhall take up theſe volumes, not with the view of being entertained by novelty of ſentiment, or of being ſtruck with ener-

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gy of diction, or beauty of language, but with the expectation of meeting with important and useful truths adapted to the improvement and edification of plain and common understandings, will not be disappointed. And we recommend them as a valuable addition to the stock of sermons designed to be read in families.

The "Twelve Sermons preached on particular Occasions, by the rev. Edward Barry, A. M. and M. D. &c." appear to be the productions of a well meaning and orthodox divine, who hath not made the beauties of language and composition the objects of his study. Hence we frequently meet with such a confusion of metaphors, misapplication of epithets, and grofs improprieties of expression, as greatly obscure the merit of the good things which they contain.

The two volumes of "Sermons, by William Leechman D. D. late Principal of the College of Glasgow," will be an acceptable present to the public, who have already passed their favourable sentence on the merits of the excellent author in this species of composition. Nine of the discourses of which these volumes consist were published by Dr. Leechman, and passed through several editions during his life-time; the rest have been selected by the editor from the author's manuscripts. They are all written on important and useful subjects. They are distinguished by great animation and energy of thought; by a spirit of fervent and chearful piety; and are written in a style that is simple, perspicuous, and pleasing. To these volumes Dr. Wodrow the editor hath prefixed an account of the life of the amiable and pious author; of which we have given an extract among our Biographical Anecdotes.

"Christ crucified; or the Scripture Doctrine of the Atonement, briefly illustrated and defended in four Discourses, by Caleb Evans, A. M." is principally intended to support the Calvinistic doctrine against the arguments of the Socinians. In discussing the question Mr. Evans discovers a manly, but temperate zeal for what he deems to be truth. His language is perspicuous, familiar, and conciliating. And he breathes throughout a spirit of piety and of candour which cannot but secure to him the applause and esteem of those who may differ from him in opinion.

The volume of "Sermons principally addressed to Youth, by J. Toulmin, A. M." is the second edition of an useful little work which first appeared before the commencement of our Annual Register, and which is now increased by the addition of two Sermons never before printed, and some Forms of Prayer. In this publication the respectable and worthy author displays a laudable zeal for the instruction and happiness of the rising generation; and urges on them the excellence of religious practice, by arguments, and in language that are forcible, serious, and pathetic. The prayers will be found admirable helps to rational and fervent devotion.

"The Case of Desertion and Affliction considered, in a Course of Sermons on the first ten Verses of the seventy-seventh Psalm, by John Lavington, jun." is a posthumous publication, which the piety and good intentions of the author may recommend to his surviving friends. The apology for offering these Discourses to the public eye, dressed as they are in the uncouth garb of the

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laſt century, is the earneſt requeſt of one who had found ſo much ſupport from them, in a long confinement, that ſhe earneſtly deſired that they might be printed for the benefit of others in like circumſtances.

The year 1789 hath been unuſually fruitful in ſingle ſermons. We can, however, particularize only ſuch of them as are entitled to attention from the occaſions on which they were delivered, or the eminent character of the preacher. The firſt which we ſhall mention is that "preached before the Lords, &c. in the Abbey Church of Weſtminſter, January 30, 1789, by George Lord Biſhop of Lincoln." In this diſcourſe the biſhop freely acknowledges that Charles the Firſt avowed the moſt unconſtitutional principles; that he manifeſted a determined contempt for the deareſt rights and moſt valuable privileges of the people; and that it, therefore, became the duty of every individual to check the progreſs of his pernicious meaſures. He likewiſe acknowledges, that many who took a leading part in the beginning of the troubles of his reign, were actuated by the pureſt motives; their only wiſh being to ſave the conſtitution, by reſtraining the king's authority within its due bounds. After ſuch liberal conceſſions the moſt determined foe to tyranny will readily excuſe the harſh epithets which he applies to the tranſactions of the 30th of January. On the whole, this diſcourſe abounds in many ſenſible and juſt obſervations, congenial to the ſpirit of the Britiſh conſtitution, and delivered in elegant language.

The next ſingle diſcourſe which claims particular notice, is that "preached at the Cathedral church of St. Paul, London, before his Majeſty, and both Houſes of Parliament, on Thurſday April 23, 1789, by Beilby, Lord Biſhop of London." The ſubject of this ſermon is Truſt in God, which the biſhop hath appl ed with a great deal of delicacy and pathos to the important and intereſting occaſion on which it was delivered. And it is recommended, not only by the judgment and good ſenſe, and the chaſtity and elegance of compoſi- which it diſcovers, but by a vein of rational and manly piety, which runs through the whole.

In addition to the ſingle ſermons already mentioned we ſhall only add to our liſt "A Diſcourſe on the Love of our Country, delivered on November the 4th, 1789, at the Meeting-houſe in the Old Jewry, to the Society for commemorating the Revolution in Great Britain &c. by Richard Price, D. D. LL. D. F. R. S. &c." In this Diſcourſe the reſpectable and learned author diſplays his well known zeal for civil and religious liberty: and draws a juſt diſtinction between that love of our country which is falſe and ſpurious, and that which is juſt and reaſonable. After which he is led to enquire what are the chief bleſſings of human nature; which he explains to be Truth, Virtue and Liberty. Theſe he warmly recommends to his audience, aſſuring them, that the ſtrenuous and active ſupport of them is the ſureſt means of manifeſting the love of our country, and of promoting its welfare. To ſay that this diſcourſe is ſenſible, liberal, and manly, is no more than what is due to all the productions of Dr. Price. It is alſo peculiarly animated and eloquent. The reflections, in particular, on the ſtate of things in a neighbouring kingdom glow with uncommon fire and energy. To the latter editions of this Sermon are added many flattering teſtimonies

teſtimonies of applauſe for the good Doctor's zeal in the cauſe of liberty, from the national aſſembly, and from other patriotic ſocieties in France.

Among ſuch publications as are of a Metaphyſical nature, the firſt that engages our attention is a "Collection of Tracts Ethical, Theological, and Political, by Thomas Cooper, Eſq. Vol. I." The volume before us contains five tracts. In the firſt Tract, which is on Moral Obligation, the author examines the hypotheſes of the different writers who have reſolved the ſource of it either into the will of the Deity, the eternal fitneſs of things, the moral ſenſe, or utility. After prefering his objections to theſe different opinions, in a manner that diſcovers great abililities as well as an intimate knowledge of the ſubject, he concludes with delivering his own, which reſolves the ſource of moral obligation into private intereſt or happineſs. In the ſecond Tract, Mr. Cooper examines the queſtion, whether the Deity be a free agent; in which, taking it for granted that the neceſſary determination of the will in human conduct is fully eſtabliſhed, he is led by analogy to extend this notion to the determinations of the Supreme Being. The third Tract contains a ſhort and accurate view of the controverſy on the ſubject of materialiſm; of which doctrine our author is an able ſupporter. In the fourth Tract, which diſcuſſes the ſubject of identity, after giving a brief hiſtory of the controverſies which have ariſen from it, and particularly examining the opinions of Mr. Locke and Dr. Butler, Mr. Cooper proceeds to ſtate his reaſons for inſiſting on its non-exiſtence. Theſe he draws from the conſideration that our ſenſations and ideas, at any two periods of time, are never preciſely the ſame; from the nature and known properties of all external objects, which are continually changing; and from various other conſiderations. The laſt Tract contains a ſummary of the arguments in favour of the Unitarian ſyſtem. From this view of the ſubjects treated of in this volume of Tracts, our readers will perceive that the author indulges to the utmoſt freedom of enquiry on queſtions which have employed the pens of ſome of the ableſt writers which this country hath produced. And we muſt do him the juſtice to acknowledge, that he is not unworthy of being added to their liſt. Whether the opinions for which he contends be true or falſe, he ſupports them like a fair and manly diſputant, and with a degree of ingenuity and acuteneſs which muſt command reſpect when they may not produce conviction.

The next publication, though it be of a more miſcellaneous complexion, cannot with propriety be referred to any other department in our hiſtory of Literature. It conſiſts of "Eſſays, Philoſophical, Hiſtorical, and Literary." The moſt valuable of theſe Eſſays which are devoted to ſubjects of Philoſophy, contain a conciſe and impartial view of the controverſy relating to Liberty and Neceſſity, and Materialiſm; a Defence of the Study of Metaphyſics againſt the Objections of Mr. Knox; and ſeveral acute obſervations on that celebrated chapter of Mr. Locke's Eſſay on the Underſtanding, which treats of Power. Beſide theſe, the volume before us contains two excellent treatiſes on Government and Civil Liberty, which defend the principles of Mr. Locke againſt the attack of the late Mr. Jenyns. The

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other Eſſays, though not poſſeſſing equal merit, are, in general, deſerving of praiſe, as ſenſible and well-written productions; and we recommend them, not only for their literary excellence, but for their uſeful moral tendency.

Our attention, in the next place, is drawn to ſuch of the publications of the year as are to be referred, partly to the Ethical Claſs, and partly to the Treatiſes relating to Government, Juriſprudence, and Political Œconomy. In this liſt the firſt place is due to "An Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legiſlation, by Jeremy Bentham, of Lincoln's-Inn, Eſq." Theſe principles were originally intended by the author as an introduction to a plan of a penal code; and are publiſhed by him, as preparatory to, and neceſſary to illuſtrate the doctrines of other treatiſes, which are either in manuſcript, or already printed. In this work our author examines, in the firſt place, the great principle by which a legiſlator, or a judge, ought to be directed in the framing and interpreting of penal laws; which is utility. After pointing out the advantages of this principle, and taking notice of certain falſe principles which have been ſubſtituted in the room of utility, he proceeds to examine the circumſtances which ought to direct its application to particular caſes; to ſpecify thoſe particular actions upon which puniſhment ought to be inflicted; and the proportion between puniſhment and offences. To theſe ſubjects he devotes ſeveral ſeparate chapters, which include much curious and important matter. Having thus prepared his way for what appears to be his principal object, Mr. Bentham proceeds to a diviſion and arangement of offences, which are claſſed under the heads of private, ſemipublic, ſelf-regarding, public, and complicated, or offences by falſhood, and offences againſt truth. Theſe claſſes are again ſubdivided by the author into a great multiplicity of branches, which are intimately connected with each other, and of which our limits will not permit us to give a minute analyſis. Such are the outlines of Mr. Bentham's very elaborate work, in which he may, perhaps, be thought, ſometimes to refine too much, and unneceſſarily to increaſe the diviſions of his ſubject: ſo much ſo as to involve it in obſcurity. On the whole, however, it will be univerſally ackowledged, that it does great honour to his abilities, induſtry, and philoſophical ſpirit.

The "Obſervations on Mr. Paley's Theory of the Origin of Civil Government, and the Duty of Submiſſion," contain a ſpirited and ſucceſsful attack on the political opinions of the archdeacon. In his Treatiſe on the Origin of Civil Government, Mr. Paley had endeavoured to prove, that all government was originally patriarchal or military; that the idea of a ſocial compact was a viſionary hypotheſis; and that the ground of the ſubject's obligation is, the will of God, collected from expediency. Theſe poſitions the ingenious author of the Obſervations examines with great acuteneſs and ability; and, beſide controverting them by the moſt powerful and convincing arguments, adduces ſtriking inſtances from the hiſtory of nations, in which the outlines of the ſocial compact are diſtinctly, though rudely delineated. On the whole, we give our hearty aſſent to the admirable reaſoning of the author, by which he ſatisfactorily confirms the doctrine of Mr. Locke; and we think him entitled to warm commendation

mendation for his ſtyle and language, which are highly elegant, animated, and energetic.

The attention of the public is alſo due to "The Principles of Moral Philoſophy inveſtigated, and briefly applied to the Conſtitution of Civil Society; together with Remarks on the Principles aſſumed by Mr. Paley, as the Baſis of all moral Concluſions, and on other Poſitions of the ſame Author, by Thomas Giſborne, A. M." In this treatiſe the author, in a chain of maſterly and candid reaſoning, ſhews that the principle of expediency, which is the baſis of Mr. Paley's moral reaſoning, is liable to continual miſapplication; that, in many caſes, it leads to concluſions unfavourable to human happineſs; that it is inconſiſtent with the precepts of ſcripture; and that it never was deſigned, nor can poſſibly be adopted, as a proper regulation of human conduct. After this Mr. Giſborne endeavours to eſtabliſh a number of propoſitions relative to the natural rights and obligations of men, which he applies to the conſtitution of civil ſociety. From theſe propoſitions he draws the concluſions, "that the only juſt foundation of civil government, is the conſent of the governed; and that every man capable of moral agency, is originally poſſeſſed of various rights by the immediate gift of God; rights which no ſtipulations of his anceſtors can ſhackle and abridge, nor can any power juſtly infringe againſt the conſent of the poſſeſſor, until he has forfeited them by his crimes." This ſyſtem Mr. Giſborne illuſtrates with good ſenſe and perſpicuity; the arguments by which he ſupports it are nervous and pointed; and the language which he uſes is correct and pleaſing.

The "Lectures on Poli ical Principles; the Subject of eighteen Books in Monteſquieu's Spirit of Laws; read to Students under the Author's Direction, by the Rev. David Williams," contain a number of miſcellaneous obſervations on the writings of that celebrated politician; many of which are honourable teſtimonies to the author's acuteneſs, and diligence of inveſtigation. Several of the miſtakes into which Monteſquieu fell are corrected in theſe Lectures; particularly, the errors in that part of the Spirit of Laws which relates to the Britiſh conſtitution. But we cannot ſay that Mr. Williams is always ſucceſsful in his remarks; neither do we admire the imperious and dogmatical ſpirit in which they are frequently conveyed.

The publication entitled, "Political Reformation on a large Scale; or a Plan of an Houſe of Commons, &c." is the firſt of a ſeries of plans which the author would recommend to his countrymen; and which he accompanies with a number of reflections and arguments that deſerve attention. The principal outlines of his ſcheme are, that no men who hold offices or emoluments, mediately or immediately from the crown, be at the ſame time members of the houſe of commons; that all men of eighteen years of age and upwards, of every denomination of religion, aliens as well as natives, be inveſted with the right of voting for members of the houſe of commons; that the kingdom be divided into five hundred and fifty-eight diſtricts, each comprehending as equal a number of electors as poſſible; that the election of members of the houſe of commons be annual, and oftener, if neceſſary; and that the general annual election be holden in all the

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diſtricts of the kingdom, on ſome ſtated day, commencing at ſun-riſe, and finally cloſing at ſun-ſet on the ſame day. Such diſcuſſions as that of our author, whether the general theory which they contain be reducible to practice, or otherwiſe, may have the good effect of ſuggeſting important reforms in the abuſes which take place in the beſt regulated conſtitutions, and have, on that account, a claim to a candid conſtruction, and a diſpaſſionate hearing.

The "Appendix to the Hiſtory of the Revenue of the Britiſh Empire, by ſir John Sinclair, Bart." is replete with valuable and intereſting information. In our account of the Literature of the year 1785, we announced the author's publication of the firſt and ſecond parts of his Hiſtory, and his conditional promiſe of a third part, to complete his work. From the Preface to this Appendix we learn, that it is now three years ſince the concluding part of the Hiſtory of the Revenue of the Britiſh Empire was prepared for the preſs; but that the publication of it has been delayed, from the hopes of receiving every aſſiſtance which the records of the different offices could furniſh, to render it more worthy of the attention and favour of the public. We are ſorry that the worthy baronet has had reaſon to complain of the diſappointment of theſe hopes; and that he ſhould, by any means, or from any motives, have been debarred acceſs to the moſt authentic ſources of information. In confidence, however, that ſome ſucceeding adminiſtrations will afford him the advantage which he requires, he is induced to defer the publication intended for ſome time longer; and in the mean time preſents the public with this Appendix. We ſhall lay the ſubſtance of the contents before our readers; aſſuring them that they may promiſe themſelves much gratification from the peruſal of a work which is entirely compoſed of curious and important particulars, that diſcover great political judgment, and indefatigable aſſiduity. The Appendix is divided into five parts. No. I. contains a general view of a propoſed analyſis of the ſources of public revenue. No. II. is a catalogue of the works which have been printed in the Engliſh language, upon the ſubject of finance, together with a liſt of ſuch foreign publications as regard the revenue of this empire. No. III. contains an abſtract of the prices of the different ſtocks ſince the year 1730. No. IV. is entitled an Antidote to Deſpondency; or progreſſive Aſſertions, from reſpectable Authorities, tending to prove that the nation was actually undone prior to the Revolution in 1688; and that it has remained in a ſtate of ruin and decay ever ſince that memorable æra. No. V. exhibits a ſtate of the public income and expenditure during the reign of King William.

The "Extra-official State Papers, addreſſed to Lord Rawdon, and the other Members of the two Houſes of Parliament, aſſociated for the Preſervation of the Conſtitution, and promoting the Proſperity of the Britiſh Empire," are offered to the public eye by Mr. Knox, who was deputy-ſecretary of ſtate under lord George Germaine, and other principal ſecretaries in the American department. The original object of the publication was, to furniſh lord Rawdon with an account of the ſeveral tranſactions in which Mr. Knox had been engaged reſpecting this country, Ireland, and America; and to acquaint him with the plans which had been formed, by dif-

different miniſters, reſpecting the intereſts of this country, and its various dependencies. In theſe papers we meet with much information on different political ſubjects, intermixed with narratives and anecdotes which will gratify the curioſity of the reader. They alſo contain ſeveral propoſals and plans relative to public matters, of a commercial and œconomical nature, which appear to have orignated in the pureſt and moſt patriotic motives; and to be the reſult of extenſive knowledge and experience.

The "Diſcourſe containing a Summary of the Proceedings of the Directors of the Society for extending the Fiſheries, and improving the Sea-coaſt of Britain, ſince the 25th of March 1788, by George Dempſter, Eſq; together with ſome Reflections intended to promote the Succeſs of the Society, by John Gray Eſq." are honourable evidences of the zeal and aſſiduity with which thoſe gentlemen apply themſelves to meliorate the condition of their miſerable fellow-ſubjects in the Highlands, and to advance the improvement of their country. To Mr. Dempſter, in particular, the national gratitude is due, for the benefits that are likely to reſult from his public ſpirit, and patriotic conduct. In this elegant and uſeful pamphlet, beſide the account of the proceedings of the ſociety of fiſheries, the reader will meet with many particulars reſpecting the northern parts of the iſland, which are highly intereſting and important, and which we heartily recommend to the attention of our countrymen.

The cauſe of humanity is likewiſe much indebted to the founders and ſupporters of the Philanthropic Society, whoſe "Firſt Report" has been ſubmitted to the public during the preſent year. This ſociety is formed rather on principles of police than of charity. The promoters of it ſeek for wretchedneſs in its laſt and loweſt ſtages. Their object is, to ſnatch children from the "reſorts of the vicious and profligate, where they muſt inevitably imbibe the contagion of moral turpitude; to reſtore them to civil community, to their proper condition as men, and to the right knowledge of their God." It is with great pleaſure that we learn from the report, that the benevolent endeavours of this ſociety have been rewarded with the moſt flattering ſucceſs; and that in a few months only it hath advanced to an extent which has ſeldom been exceeded in as many years, and is ſtill making a rapid progreſs. And we partake in the hope which the friends to this inſtitution indulge, that from the eſtabliſhment of ſimilar plans, "co-operating with a general ſpirit of reform and diffuſion of juſt ſentiments that everywhere appears; particularly from the good effects of Sunday ſchools on the poor of a leſs depraved deſcription than thoſe for whom the preſent plan is deſigned, human nature will, at length, aſſert her rights, ſociety learn its true intereſts and the ſum of happineſs be augmented beyond what has been known in any former period of the hiſtory of mankind."

The "Eſſay to direct and extend the Enquiries of Patriotic Travellers, by Count Leopold Berchtold, Knight of the military Order of St. Stephen of Tuſcany, &c. in two vols." is a work perfectly novel in its deſign, and executed by a perſon of experience and judgment. To rational and ſcientific travellers, who go abroad in purſuit of valuable knowledge, it will prove an acceptable preſent, and moſt uſeful companion. The object of the author

thor will ſufficiently appear from what we ſhall further extract from the title of this work, that it contains "Obſervations on the Means of preſerving the Life, Health, and Property of the Inexperienced, in their Journies by Land and Sea; alſo a Series of Queſtions, intereſting to Society and to Humanity, neceſſary to be propoſed for Solution to Men of all Ranks and Employments, and of all Nations and Governments, comprizing the moſt ſerious Points relative to the Objects of all Travellers; with a liſt of Engliſh and Foreign Works intended for the Benefit and Inſtruction of Travellers, and a Catalogue of the moſt intereſting European Travels, from the earlieſt Times to September 1787."

The "Remarks on the Coinage of England, from the earlieſt to the preſent Times, by Walter Merrey," are the productions of a ſenſible and intelligent writer, who calls the attention of the public to a ſubject of conſiderable moment and importance. The ſcarcity, and the corrupt ſtate of the ſilver coinage are ſufficiently notorious. Theſe evils our author traces to, what appears to be their true ſource, the diſproportion between the ſtandard values of gold and ſilver, and the too high price of the former metal: the conſequence of which has been a ruinous exportation of our good ſilver. To remedy this evil he propoſes a reduction of the nominal value of the guinea; which, he thinks, would keep gold and ſilver at their proper level. Might it not be ſafer and more expedient to lower the ſtandard of ſilver? Whichever be deemed beſt, the facts which the author adduces merit the attention of government; and his reaſonings are judicious and weighty. In an appendix to this treatiſe Mr. Merrey diſcovers a conſiderable acquaintance with ancient coinages.

The "View of the Importance of the Trade between Great Britain and Ruſſia, by Anthony Brough," contains a popular repreſentation of the advantages derived to this Country by our imports from Ruſſia, in which the author hath liberally availed himſelf of the aſſiſtance of Mr. Coxe and ſir Joſiah Child, and other eminent writers on commerce and political œconomy. We think, however, that he ſhould have dwelt more fully and explicitly on the advantages to Ruſſia from the commerce with the Britiſh dominions. Such a repreſentation would have enabled the reader more accurately to determine its relative and political importance. In reply to the queſtion of Mr. Brough, why then does not this country renew the treaty with Ruſſia? it would probably have ſuggeſted the queſtion, why then does not Ruſſia endeavour to renew the treaty with Great Britain?

Mr. Beaumont's "Treatiſe on the Coal Trade," after pointing out the difference between the mines of England and Scotland, with their reſpective products, ſhews the advantages which the coals of this iſland poſſeſs over thoſe of Germany and France, when applied to the working of metals, and to manufactures in general: to which he adds practical rules for the better working of our mines. To theſe ſucceed propoſals for taxing the coals exported into foreign countries; for the more equable extenſion of the tax of one ſhilling per chaldron, which is at preſent confined to the river Tyne; and for ſettling the differences between the coal owners and the London buyers in ſuch a manner, as would afford a reaſonable profit to all concerned in the trade, and ſupply the me-

tropolis regularly, and at a moderate price, the whole year round. As we profeſs ourſelves incompetent to determine on the importance and feaſibility of theſe propoſitions, we muſt leave them to the conſideration of government, and thoſe whom they more immediately concern.

The ſubject of impriſonment for debt, which hath lately employed the pens of ſeveral able writers, is diſcuſſed in a diſpaſſionate and ſenſible manner in "A Letter to the right hon. Lord Thurlow, Lord High Chancellor of England, on the Conduct of Parliament towards the inſolvent Debtors, and Impriſonment for Debt &c. by I. Pieſley, Citizen and Scrivener." The propoſal of this author is, that inſtead of the preſent mode of impriſonment, attachments ſhould be iſſued againſt the effects of the debtor, on an affidavit being made of the debt, and ſecurity given by the creditor to ſubſtantiate his demand before a jury. That if bail be not put in, within a certain number of days, the effects to be ſold to the amount of the debt and coſts, unleſs the debtor ſhall declare himſelf inſolvent; in which caſe the creditor muſt take an equal dividend with all the other creditors, after having been allowed the expences which he has incurred. He farther propoſes that the inſolvent debtor ſhall be made ſubject to all the penalties of the bankrupt laws, and on a full diſcloſure be entitled to the ſame immunities. The plan which Mr. Peiſley would recommend appears to us to be founded in humanity, and good policy; and we hope that the ſpirit of it will be adopted in the long wiſhed for alteration of the laws reſpecting inſolvent debtors.

"Impriſonment for Debt unconſtitutional and oppreſſive; proved from the fundamental Principles of the Conſtitution, and the Rights of Nature, by Edward Farley, Eſq." is a ſpirited and well written treatiſe, in which the author hath intermixed with his arguments a variety of anecdotes, and political ſtrictures, which will entertain his reader. We think, however, that we perceive in him too uniform a prejudice againſt the law and its practitioners, to pronounce him an impartial and diſpaſſionate writer. His attack, ſometimes, appears to be perſonal, as well as unreaſonably ſevere.

The "Addreſs to the Country Gentlemen of England and Wales, by James Bland Burges, Eſq. M. P." calls their attention to the enormous abuſes attendant on the county courts. Theſe courts have a power of holding pleas for ſums under forty ſhillings; and, if properly conducted, might prove extremely beneficial to the poor and induſtrious part of the community, by enabling them to recover their juſt debts, in a cheap and eaſy manner. As they are conducted at preſent, however, they are too frequently converted into engines of legal tyranny and oppreſſion. To excite the attention of the landed gentry to this evil, Mr. Burgeſs, in animated terms, points out the manner in which, through the villainy of attornies, the coſts have been made to amount to more than an hundred times the ſum demanded; and expoſes to the indignation of his readers, that ſpecies of juſtice which effectually ruins both parties, which nine times out of ten, commits the one party to gaol, and obliges the other to fly his country. Mr. Burgeſs's humane attention to the cauſe of the poor and the oppreſſed, does him the greateſt honour; and we doubt not but that his endeavours to remedy the evil which he deſcribes, will be ſupported by the humanity

nanity and juſtice of Britiſh ſenators.

With reſpect to ſuch publications on the ſubject of law, as are intended for profeſſional men, we muſt content ourſelves with barely laying the titles of them before our readers. Of this number are "Reports of the Proceedings in Committees in the Houſe of Commons, upon controverted Elections, had and determined during the preſent Parliament, vol. I. by Alexander Luders, Eſq." "Reports of Caſes argued and determined in the Court of Common Pleas, from Eaſter Term 1788, to Trinity Term 1789, both incluſive; in three Parts, by Henry Blackſtone, Eſq." "Caſes in Crown Law determined by the twelve Judges, by the Court of King's Bench, and by Commiſſioners of Oyer and Terminer and general Gaol Delivery, from the 4th Year of Geo. II. to the 29th Year of Geo. III. by Thomas Leach, Eſq." "Reports of Caſes in Chancery, to the 29th Geo. III. by W. Brown, Eſq." "a Treatiſe of the Law of Election in all its Branches, by John Simeon, Eſq.;" "Eſſays upon the Law of Evidence, new Trials, ſpecial Verdicts, Trials at Bar, and Repleaders, by John Morgan, Eſq.;" "Reports of Caſes upon Appeals and Writs of Error in the High Court of Parliament, from the Year 1697 to the Year 1709, with Tables, Notes, and References, being a Supplementary Volume to Brown's Caſes in Parliament, by Richard Colles, Eſq." "An Abridgment of the Statutes relating to Scotland, in two vols. 4to. by J. Swinton, Eſq." And "An Inſtitute of the Law relating to Trials at Niſi Prius, by Arthur Onſlow, Eſq. a new Edition with Alterations and Additions."

To theſe we may add the following treatiſes which chiefly refer to the mechanical part of the law: "An Analyſis of the Practice of the Courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas, with ſome Obſervations on the Mode of paſſing Fines and Recoveries, by Baker John Sellon, Eſq." "A full, clear and familiar Explanation of the Law concerning Bills of Exchange, Promiſſory Notes, and the Evidence on a Trial by Jury relative thereto, with a deſcription of Bank Notes, and the priviledge of Attornies, by Peter Lovelace, Gent;" "A Short Treatiſe on the Law of Bills of Exchange, by I. Bailey;" "The law of Diſtreſſes for Rent, by T Woodward;" and the "Conſiderations on a Commiſſion of Bankruptcy; in which the ſeveral Advantages and Diſadvantages attending the Recovery of Debts by a Commiſſion, according to the ſituation of the Perſon and Eſtate of the Creditor and his Debtor are ſtated and compared."

In pure Mathematics, we meet with "Elements of Geometry; containing the principal Propoſitions in the firſt ſix, and the eleventh and twelfth Books of Euclid; with Notes critical and explanatory, by John Bonnycaſtle, of the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich." The deſign of the author in this publication is, to bring the eſſential principles of the ſcience into a ſhorter compaſs, than as they now ſtand in Euclid's Elements. For this purpoſe he has omitted many propoſitions, which have been introduced only as neceſſary links in the chain of reaſoning, and ſubſtituted others in their place, which appear to him to be more uſeful and conciſe. He has, likewiſe, introduced ſeveral alterations in the arrangement of the propoſitions, and the mode of demonſtration. Great praiſe is undoubtedly due to Mr. Bonnycaſtle for his endeavour to render the ſub-

lime ſcience of geometry more eaſy of acceſs to learners; and to convey its precepts in conciſe, unembarraſſed, and elegant language. In theſe reſpects he hath greatly the advantage of moſt writers who, in latter times, have attempted that arduous taſk. He hath alſo the merit, while introducing ſeveral amendments, to keep cloſer to the manner of Euclid. But we are apprehenſive that his fondneſs for contraction hath occaſionally betrayed him into obſcurity; and led him to omit ſome parts of his original, which thoſe who have purſued the ſcience to any extent will conſider as highly important, and neceſſary to a fundamental treatiſe.

Thoſe gentlemen who are in military departments will obtain a valuable acquiſition in "The Field Engineer, or Inſtructions upon every Branch of Field Fortification, demonſtrated by Examples that occurred in the Seven Years War between the Pruſſians, the Auſtrians, and the Ruſſians, with Plans and explanatory Notes;" tranſlated from the fourth edition of the German original of captain Tielke, by Edwin Hewgill, Enſign and adjutant in the Coldſtream Regiment of Foot Guards. To the extraordinary merit of captain Tielke in military tactics, we have given repeated teſtimony. Of the tranſlation before us it is but juſtice to ſay, that it contains a number of improvements of the original, which Mr. Hewgill was enabled to introduce from the explanatory communications which he had with the author; and that it is, in general, accurate and perſpicuous. The numerous plates which accompany this tranſlation are executed upon an enlarged ſcale, and are neatly engraved; and the whole work is to be commended for its typographical excellencies.

"The Partizan in War; or the Uſe of a Corps of Light Troops to an Army, by Lieut. Col. A. Emmerich," contains a number of clear and uſeful rules, adapted to moſt of the ſituations likely to occur in actual ſervice, which are deſerving of the attention of young officers, and of military men in general. Theſe rules are illuſtrated by examples of their application taken from the author's own conduct as well as the conduct of others. It is proper to add, that the author of this performance is an officer of conſiderable experience, who was formed in the ſchools of Prince Ferdinand and the Duke of Brunſwick, in the ſeven years German war, and ſerved with great reputation in the Britiſh army during the late war in America.

The "Sea Manual; recommended to the young Officers of the Navy, as a Companion to the Signal Book, by Sir Alexander Schomberg," contains a variety of uſeful information, comprized within a narrow compaſs, and drawn up with clearneſs and perſpicuity. Sir Alexander ſuppoſes a ſquadron to be in all poſſible ſituations, from the ſhifting of winds, or the alteration of poſition in the enemies fleet; and gives directions for preſerving the order of ſailing, line of battle, &c. in a manner deſigned to render the captain of each ſhip "ſo well trained as to meet the admiral's idea, and render unneceſſary that profuſion of ſignals, which muſt otherwiſe follow in detail, ſhould his intention be, by any accident, miſconceived." While all our neighbours are extending their ſcientific acquaintance in this line, it is of importance that every profeſſional work ſhould meet with encouragement which has for its object the preſervation of that ſuperiority in maritime affairs, which is ſo neceſſary to the political exiſtence of this country.

With

With the last observation in view, we recommend Captain T. West's "Naval Signals, constructed on a new Plan." It is well known to gentlemen of the navy, that a more complete set, than is at present in use, is a very desirable object. The signals which Captain West proposes, appear to be simple, and to deserve the attention of the admiralty board. A plate of these, with proper explanations, accompanies his pamphlet.

"The Rudiments of Ancient Architecture; containing an Historical Account of the Five Orders, with their Proportion, and Examples of each, from the Antiques, &c." are intended chiefly for travellers and gentlemen, whose desire is rather general information, than the minutiæ of the science. In this view the publication before us, will be found a perspicuous and useful compendium of the knowledge necessary to understand the writers on that subject. These Rudiments are illustrated by plates, which appear well adapted to the design of the work, and a dictionary, explaining the terms used by artists.

[In our last volume the various claims, of different academical collections, made us anxious to defer the considerations of the new volume of the Irish Transactions; and, at this time, though a second has appeared, we believe within the period of our enquiries, yet as it has not circulated among many readers, we must beg leave to confine ourselves to the first. In the literature of the year, we cannot always limit our examinations, by the precarious and uncertain date of advertisements. The new observatory at Trinity-college, Dublin; of which Dr. Asher gives some account, and whose latitude and longitude he has fixed with precision, to compare the astronomical observations, in this new building, with those of other countries, is not only the first article in the volume alluded to, but deserves, from its future importance, to be first noticed. It gives value and importance to the same author's "observations on the lunar eclipse of the 18th of March, 1783." Mr. Herschell, in the Philosophical Transactions of this kingdom, has improved our knowledge of the heavenly bodies, by his "Catalogue of a second Thousand *new Nebulæ*." When we consider how few *nebulæ* were formerly known, the extent of his researches will be more conspicuous; and while we reflect that each *nebula* is not only a system of planets, but a collection of innumerable systems, each with its attendant worlds and satellites, our ideas of the Creator will be raised to a height which the warmest imagination cannot reach. Our author, in the remarks on a construction of the heavens, added to this paper, has shewn, that he can not only number systems, but supposing the laws of nature observed here, to prevail through the universe, can explain their forms, and comparatively at least, calculate their *æras*. The last year was however destined to disgrace, rather than to add a lustre to astronomy, for the comet expected did not appear. Mr. Herschell indeed, discovered and observed a little comet, which he described in the Philosophical Transactions of last year; and Sir Henry Englefield, early in the year, published "Tables of the apparent Places of the Comet of 1661, and 1789, with a new Method of using the *reticule Rhomboide*;" but his labours were fruitless, and the present year has not consoled us, by enabling astronomers to point out the

ſource of errors, ſince the comet has not returned. Mr. Woolaſton's preface to a "Specimen of a general Aſtronomical Catalogue, arranged in Zones, of North Polar Diſtances," promiſes greatly to aſſiſt future obſervers, particularly in delineating the path of a new body in its progreſs through the heavens; and Mr. Smeaton's "Deſcription of an Improvement in the Application of the Quadrant of Altitude," in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, may, in another way, ſerve the ſame purpoſe. M. Prazzi's "Reſult of Calculations, from Obſervations made in various Places on the Eclipſe of the Sun, June 3, 1788," is applied directly to purpoſes of utility, in aſcertaining the longitudes of theſe places. Mr. Adams, in a more humble line, continues his very uſeful elementary treatiſes, on the uſe of philoſophical inſtruments, and has, in the courſe of laſt year, publiſhed his "Aſtronomical and Geographical Eſſays." With the ſame views, he has publiſhed an "Eſſay on Viſion," in which we find ſome judicious obſervations on the ſtructure and uſe of ſpectacles. But, in this department of philoſophy, Mr. Maſkelyne's paper in the Philoſophical Tranſactions is not more curious than accurate. He confutes, very ſatisfactorily, the poſition of Euler, who ſuppoſed the diſtinctneſs of the picture on the retina was owing to humours of different denſity correcting the different refrangibility of the rays of light; he ſhows, that fluids of theſe denſities, in ſuch order, would increaſe the evil, but that when the errors are calculated, they are found not to be ſufficient to confuſe the picture, and even to be leſs than in a good teleſcope. The inverſion of objects on the retina, Mr. M'Cauſland has endeavoured to explain, in his "Conjectures on ſome of the Phenomena of the Barometer."

As we proceed towards the earth, we may notice "A Lecture on the Atmoſphere of London, by Mr. Taylor," a work, which deſerves little attention, as it is no leſs trite in ſome of its parts, than erroneous in others. Mr. M'Guire's deſcription of a new portable barometer, in the Iriſh Tranſactions, is of much more importance, as the inſtrument is convenient and uſeful: Dr. Hamilton's Deſcription of the Parhelia at Cookſtown, in the ſame collection, adds to our ſtock of theſe harmleſs but pleaſing meteors. Mr. M'Cauſland's Conjectures on ſome of the Phænomena of the Barometer diſplay acuteneſs and ingenuity; but we are ſorry to obſerve that the theory of his inſtrument, ſo often in our hands, and ſo long known, is yet imperfectly underſtood. The annual "Regiſter of the Barometer, Thermometer, and Rain at Lyndon," is continued by Mr. Barker, and to it, is added the quantity of rain which fell in the ſame year at Selborne. It was in 1788, when, as we have already had occaſion to remark, the year was very dry, affording much leſs rain than is ſometimes poured on the earth, in one day, between the tropics. Mr. Hutchinſon, in the ſame volume, has given ſome obſervations on the dryneſs of this year, and Mr. Marſham has given thoſe marks, which indicated the approach of ſpring, during a ſucceſſion of years, in three tables, where the different ſigns may be eaſily compared. Of the volumes on particular branches of Philoſophy, we can only mention Mr. Parkinſon's valuable ſyſtem of mechanics and hydroſtatics; to which we may add ſome uſeful,

and

and ingenious obſervations on electricity, by Mr. Nicholſon, in the Philoſophical Tranſactions.

In this portion of our work, we have been accuſtomed to mention thoſe voyages and travels, which have added to our knowledge of different parts of the world, and its productions. The voyages and obſervations of captain Cooke, ſuggeſted to ſome enterprizing ſpirits, the idea of going to the Weſtern coaſt of America, to purchaſe furs, again to be ſold to the Chineſe; which, independent of its profit to the individual, would ultimately leſſen the quantity of ſpecie annually ſent to China. The probable conſequences of this attempt, in bringing on a war, with all its horrors, we have every moment before our eyes; it is only neceſſary in this place, to remark, that one of the firſt adventurers, Capt. Dixon, or rather one of his officers, under his protection, has publiſhed an account of the voyage. In a literary view, it is not of great importance, as it is written in letters, with a diſpleaſing mixture of ſtiffneſs and familiarity: as adding to our ſtock of geographical knowledge, and in ſome degree to the natural hiſtory of the earth, it is more valuable. Our author follows in many places the track of captain Cooke, which he ſometimes attempts, without reaſon or ſucceſs, to correct; but the moſt important part of the work, is the diſcovery of a new Archipelago, in that ſpot where the Straits of Fuente were placed, and which were ſuppoſed by that navigator, to communicate with Hudſon's Bay. The accounts of Fuente were diſbelieved; but, as the iſlands which he mentioned were ſeen by our voyagers, and the appearance of ſtraits were obſerved at the ſame ſpot, ſome philoſophers have again hoped, that the diſcovery of a North Weſt paſſage is not deſperate. We ſhall reſume this ſubject in our next volume, as another apparently more accurate narrative of the ſame voyage has lately appeared.

Mr. Tench's narrative of the expedition to Botany Bay, gave us the firſt diſtinct account of this experimental voyage, and of the eaſtern coaſt of that vaſt iſland; the ſhort time that had elapſed, between his arrival and the publication, while the great diſtance of the ſpot is conſidered, renders its clearneſs, and the extent of the information conveyed, a ſubject of ſurpriſe and admiration. It has been followed by a more ſplendid volume, publiſhed for Stockdale, where the accounts are more full, and more extenſive, but not more authentic. We mention this publication chiefly on account of the narratives ſubjoined of the voyages of different tranſports on their return, which add conſiderably to our knowledge of the iſlands in the Eaſtern Seas. The publication, by the authority of the lords of the admiralty, will occur in our next volume. The new edition of Mr. Coxe's "Travels in Switzerland," has added to our knowledge of the philoſophy and natural hiſtory of that beautiful and romantic country; and Mr. Luffman's "Brief Account of Antigua," is not without utility, in the ſame view. Mr. Paterſon's "Four Journeys into the Country of the Hottentots, and Cafraria," and Mr. Howel's "Journal of a Paſſage from India," give a little farther information than we had before received of ſome of the internal parts of the vaſt continent which forms three quarters of the world. Mr. Sanders, from India, has penetrated the country of Thi-

bet and Bouran, to the confines of the wandering Tartars, who ſtill retain the primitive ſimplicity of patriarchal manners, though perhaps without their innocence. His account of the vegetable and mineral productions of theſe countries, and his obſervations on the objects which he obſerved in his journey through the continent of Aſia, occur in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, and are curious as well as entertaining. Mr. Anderſon, in the ſame volume, has given us an account of a bituminous lake, in the iſland Trinidad, an iſland probably raiſed by a volcano, amidſt the ſhallows lying between Tobago and the Spaniſh Main.

A foreign collection has furniſhed us with "Obſervations on the Mineral and Chemical Hiſtory of the Foſſils," found in one part of this iſland, Cornwall, and it has been very correctly tranſlated: the information is frequently new, and ſometimes intereſting. Mr. Cavallo's Mineralogical Tables, without being confined to one ſpot, give a very general, ſynoptical view of the Science of Mineralogy: it is not indeed a work of the laſt year, but was by accident omitted in our former volumes. Though we cannot boaſt of many new works in this department, we have acquired ſome knowledge of the imitation of precious ſtones, by Mr. Drewe's tranſlation of M. Fontanieu's "Art of making coloured Cryſtals." In a more general view of the Chemical Science, we find only M. Wiegleb's Chemiſtry, tranſlated by Dr. Hopſon, in ſome reſpects indeed improved, but deformed by an unpleaſing, and uncommon nomenclature, and perhaps ſcarcely improved by the tranſlator's new ſyſtem of heat. On the various arts we receive ſome curious inſtructions, and on the ſubject of heat ſome information collected by the tranſlator from foreign journals. Dr. Crawford's new edition, which we alluded to in our laſt number, we have ſince been enabled to examine. It is entitled Experiments and Obſervations on Animal Heat, and the Inflammation of combuſtible Bodies; and as a ſyſtem, it it in a great meaſure new, while the experiments which chiefly relate to heat and combuſtion, are more clear, more numerous, and more ſatisfactory than in the former edition. The additional facts are really important, and though ſome difficulties remain, though there are ſome obſcurities left to be elucidated, we have little doubt but our author's ſyſtem will be found to be the true one. While heat ſeems now to be generally conſidered as a body, and a real ingredient in the compoſition of many different mixtures, the exiſtence of phlogiſton, is ſtill violently oppoſed. The inaccuracies, which Dr. Prieſtley diſcovered in the reſult of the experiments on the decompoſition of water, and the nitrous acid really produced, gave ſome ſupport to this ſuſpected principle of Stahl and Becher. The explanations, that have ſince been given, are not the proper objects of this ſketch. It is our buſineſs rather to remark, that Dr. Prieſtley has purſued the ſubject in three papers in the laſt volume of the Philoſophical Tranſactions, entitled—"Objections to the Experiments and Obſervations relating to the Principle of Acidity and the Compoſition of Water, and Phlogiſton conſidered, with farther Obſervations "On the ſame Subject." "Experiments on the Phlogiſtication of Spirit of Nitre," and "Experiments on the Tranſmiſſion of the Vapour of Acids, through a hot earthen Tube." In each of theſe articles, he adds to

our knowledge of chemiſtry, and ably ſupports the falling doctrine of phlogiſton. Dr. Harrington, a name little known in the ſcientific world, has addreſſed however a Letter to Dr. Prieſtley, and to ſome of the French academicians, who agree in many points, though they differ on the ſubject of phlogiſton, in which he endeavours to ſupport a new ſyſtem, and to prove their newly adopted opinions fallacious.

The ſevere cold of the winter of 1788. enabled us, with the help of freezing mixtures, to deprive quickſilver of ſo much of its heat, as to reduce it to a ſolid form. The experiments, on this ſubject, made by Mr. Walker, are publiſhed in the laſt volume of the Philoſophical Tranſactions. In the ſame volume, we have ſome additional information on the ſubject of airs from Milner, who, in his paper on the production of nitrous acid, and nitrous air, has ſhewn, that the volatile alkali, may contribute to their formation: in reality, though apparently ſo different, their principles are nearly related. The medical powers of fixed air, are ſufficiently known, and it is enough to mention a tract of Dr. Melville, entitled, "Obſervations on the Nature and Properties of fixible Air, and the ſalutary Effects of Aqua Salubris," a ſolution of fixed air, in water. But an union, which accident, rather than chemiſtry has ſuggeſted, is ſtill more ſurprizing. We are informed by Mr. Chamberlain, and we find his obſervations ſtrictly juſt, that camphor will render myrrh, ſoluble in water, and join with it in the ſame menſtruum: it is the firſt inſtance of a reſin and an oil uniting, in this way, to contribute to the ſolution of each other. This fact, which we find occurs in the Medical Tranſactions of the Royal Society at Paris, we have taken from the ſecond volume of the Memoirs of the Medical Society at London; and though it is not common for us to give a particular account of the contents of ſuch collections, we find it neceſſary in tracing the progreſs of ſcience to ſelect a few of the moſt important articles.

Before we mention, however, particular remedies more fully, it is neceſſary to point out the long expected edition, of Dr. Cullen's Materia Medica, a work, which, the late death of its author, has rendered more valuable. In a moment of diſtreſs, when the profeſſor of the Materia Medica died, Dr. Cullen voluntarily aſſumed the office, and gave a courſe of lectures on a plan new and original; full of curious and ſcientific information. It has been ſtyled, perhaps with propriety, the Philoſophy of the Materia Medica; and in this new edition the author has added what his more mature judgment, long experience, and more extenſive information ſuggeſted. The accounts of the effects of particular remedies, muſt be chiefly taken from the Medical Memoirs, for, if we except Mr. Jameſon's "Treatiſe on Diluents, and Enquiry into the Diſeaſes of the Human Body, to aſcertain the Operation of Diluents," a work of no great importance, our chief information on this part of medicine muſt be drawn from that volume. On turning it over, with this view, we perceive ſome remarks on the uſe and virtues of the fox-glove, by Dr. Lettſom, from which its merits do not ſeem to be ſo conſiderable, as its ſanguine admirers probably wiſhed to have found them. Dr. A. Fothergill praiſes the gum kino in intermittent fevers, and certain preternatural diſcharges, though his cases do not ſpeak altogether in terms equally

ſtrong.

ſtrong. With better reaſon, Dr. Farr ſeems to commend the uſe of cantharides in the dropſy, which we apprehend have been often employed with advantage. Calomel, bark, wine, and cold bathing have been employed with ſucceſs in tetanus, in imitation of Dr. Buſh, whoſe miſcellaneous "Medical Eſſays" have alſo been republiſhed in the courſe of this period: the ſame complaint, Mr. Hutchiſon tells us, has been removed by electricity. Dr. Percival has again recommended the Hartfill Spa, near Moffat, as an aſtringent; and Dr. Sims tells us, that a particular water, near Cloyne, in Ireland, iſſuing from a turf-bog, has cured jaundice, by wetting the patient, and putting him to bed in his wet linen, till a ſweat broke out: any other water, it is ſaid, will ſucceed equally well; and it is the cold alſo which acts, when water, applied to the extremities, ſucceeds in relieving obſtinate conſtipations, as Dr. Falconer found in a caſe mentioned in the volume of "Memoirs" now before us. In a ſimilar complaint, Dr. Adair and M. Bureau obſerved great advantages, from the propelling powers of an hydraulic machine, which filled the inteſtines with a mild fluid. The cicuta, we find, has been given with ſucceſs, in a caſe where the cardia was conſtricted; and which was probably owing to its continued action on the diſeaſed part. Where medcines are injurious to the ſtomach, Mr. Sherwin tells us, that their peculiar effects may be induced by diſſolving them in water, and ſuffering them to be abſorbed by immerſing the hands in the fluid. This he inſtances in the exhibition of emetic tartar, and tartarized arſenic. The latter proved diuretic, and the former diaphoretic; but each produced a ſlight nauſea.

Dr. Toulmin's "Inſtruments of Medicine," for we now return to ſeparate works, conſiſts rather of formulæ, and general directions for the practitioner, in particular diſeaſes, which are ſhortly deſcribed, than in the exhibition of any particular medicine. It is an imperfect and erroneous attempt, introduced by a violent preface, which ſhows the author to be a follower, or an admirer of the late Dr. Brown. Dr. Kentiſh's "Advice to Gouty Patients" contains alſo general directions, and does not riſe, in eminence, above Dr. Toulmin's work. Dr. Kite's prize-eſſay on the recovery of perſons, apparently dead, include the moſt approved directions for this purpoſe, with ſome judicious reflections: if it is not the moſt curious or ingenious, it is undoubtedly the moſt uſeful publication in this line.

There are few works, which excluſively relate to the practice of medicine, and the hiſtory of diſeaſes. In the Memoirs of the Medical Society, we perceive ſome judicious remarks on a complaint, hitherto little underſtood, the ſcirrho-contracted rectum, which we ſhall probably be now able more clearly to explain, if we cannot treat it more ſucceſsfully; another caſe is alſo related by Dr. Lettſom. Dr. Winſhip's caſe of incyſted dropſy is not of great importance; and Mr. Fearon's obſervations, in which he endeavours to prove that cancers, in the beginning, are inflammatory, appear ſcarcely more intereſting. Mr. Reeve's Eſſay on the Eryſipelatous Sore Throat, is a more plain and uſefull work; and even Dr. Buchan's Diſſertation on Typhus, if not new, may perhaps, in America, the ſource of his obſervations, be uſeful. Dr. Andree's Conſiderations on Bilious Diſeaſes, is a work of a ſimilar kind,

kind, often trite, but frequently practical and useful. Dr. Dickson's short treatise on pemphigus, a disease little known, deserves particular attention: it occurs in the Irish Transactions; and among the more miscellaneous practical works we must mention the annual volume of the Medical Commentaries, a new and complete edition of the late excellent Dr. Gregory's, and some miscellaneous remarks on the plague, in Mr. Howard's last work.

The king's late illness occasioned many volunteers to offer their services; and they were either engaged in prescribing for a disease, which they could not understand, as even a description had never reached them; or in general discussions on similar complaints: the few which occur to us, we have classed together. Dr. Rowley's Treatise on Female Nervous, Hysteric, Hypochondriac, Convulsive, and Bilious Diseases, in which Insanity is concluded, was written probably before the event we alluded to; but it has occasioned a slight controversy on the definition of Insanity, in which the opinion of physicians, on the nature of the king's disorder has been examined and censured. Mr. Harper's treatise "On the real Cause and Cure of Insanity," was a publication of a similar kind; and an anonymous author came nearer to the point, by publishing "An Attempt to ascertain the Cause of the King's (then) present Illness." Dr. Freeman, an author whom we meet with more often in a newspaper than the dignity of a regular physician would allow, published, at the same period, a "Letter to Hypochondriacal and Nervous Patients," in which he prescribed some very trifling and insignificant remedies for his majesty's complaint, a prescription that, if we rightly recollect, he tells us, was sent to the physicians attending; and Dr. Jones, in more courtly language summed up the whole, by "An Enquiry into the Nature, Cause, and Termination of *Nervous Fevers*."

Nervous and hysteric affections, are the peculiar diseases of females; and treated of, by Mr. Gregg, in his Advice to the Female Sex, a work in general of some authority, and probably of some utility. Mr. Lucas's "Hints on the Management of Women in certain Cases of Pregnancy," in the Memoirs of the Medical Society, deserve more attention; but the most important case is that recorded by Dr. Vaughan, in the same collection, where the irritability of the stomach was so great, that the mildest food produced vomiting, and the woman was supported by nutritive glysters, without a particle of solid food given by the mouth, till that organ recovered its tone. The action of vomiting, by some curious but cruel experiments, in the same volume, is shewn to depend in a great degree, on the resistance, perhaps the action of the abdominal muscles. If we pursue the subject of Midwifry, ab ovo, we must mention some "Speculations on the Mode and Appearance of Impregnation in the human Female," by a Physician, where the author endeavours to revive the old exploded doctrine of absorption, we need not add without success. If any argument were required to confute the opinion, in this place, we think two observations, which occur in the records of this year, would be sufficient. Dr. Baillie found several remains of a fœtus, for a fœtus it must of necessity be, in the human ovarium, which he quaintly styles an "Account of a particular Change in the Structure of the human Ovarium." Another instance of a similar kind occurs in the

the Irish Transactions, where there is a particular description of numerous teeth, bones, hair, &c. Each instance, however disguised, can only result from the remains of a fœtus, and if the physician will alledge, that it may have been deposited in the ovarium, instead of the uterus, it will be necessary to show how it happens, that it is never deposited in any other cavity. The most judicious and satisfactory account, that we have seen of these obscure and intricate subjects, occurs in Dr. Denman's "Introduction to the Practice of Midwifery." The first volume only has yet appeared; but its merit has made us anxious for the continuation. On this subject, we must mention Mr. Hooper's "Case of an Uterus, lacerated by Labour Pains," in the Medical Memoirs; and to compensate for this gloomy picture, we may notice a new edition of Mr. Douglas's "Observations on the Rupture of the gravid Uterus," where we find the subject of his former case, has safely born children; and other instances are added, which shew that this accident is not necessarily fatal. The imperfections of a child may be numerous; but the most extraordinary monster recorded, is that described by Mr. Anderson, in the Philosophical Transactions, where the lower extremities of a child, are affixed to the pit of the stomach of a boy, in other respects, perfect. The curable misfortunes, are the subject of Mr. Underwood's new edition of his work, on the Diseases of Children, where every part of the subject is also explained with great care and accuracy. We cannot conclude this subject without mentioning Dr. Downman's pleasing poem of "Infancy," where the general diætetic rules, are adorned and enforced, by polished energetic numbers.

In the more limited department of Surgery, little that is important, offers. Mr. Sheldon's "Essay on the Fracture of the Patella, with Observations on the Fracture of the Olecranon," contains an anatomical description of the parts, with the method of treatment, in which it has been observed he differs little from M. Sabatier. It is enough to mention Mr. Humpage's accurate "Treatise on the Hydrocele," and Mr. Clare's practical work on the Gonnorrhœa. Mr. Moore's "Dissertation on the Process of Nature, in healing Wounds" gained the prize at the Lyceum. It is an elegant and ingenious, rather than an accurate work; the dawn probably of a brighter day.

If we proceed to the inferior animals, Mr. Hunter's supplementary letter occurs in the Philosophical Transactions, in which we find additional proofs of the "Identity of the Species of the Fox, Wolf and Jackall." Dr. Gray's "Observations on the Amphibia," in the same volume, with his remarks "on the means of distinguishing those serpents which are venemous," are accurate and scientific. They lessen our fears, as they shew that the number of serpents, really poisonous, have been greatly exaggerated. Mr. Church, in the Medical Memoirs, has given a description of the ascaris lumbricoides, and he informs us that the white threads, seen sometimes folded round the body, are the young. Many miscellaneous and pleasing observations in Natural History, occur in Mr. White's "Natural History and Antiquities of Selborne;" and Dr. Berkenhout, in his "Synopsis of the Natural History of Great Britain and Ireland," (a new edition of the Outlines), enumerates, and describes with accuracy, the different species of each kingdom. The Flora Caroliniana

roſiniana is a more partial account, containing the plants only of one country; Dr. Smith's Plantarum Icones, of which we have ſeen only one faſciculus, chiefly exhibits thoſe, which have either not been engraved, or repreſented incorrectly. Dr. Martyn's thirty-eight plates are ſubſervient only to his edition of Rouſſeau's Letters. We cannot however conclude this department, without mentioning the "Loves of the Plants," an elegant and highly poetical deſcription of the moſt curious genera, illuſtrated with ſcientific notes. It is attributed, with good reaſon, to Dr. Darwin of Litchfield.

In the department of Agriculture, we meet with ſo little, that it ſcarcely deſerves a diſtinct account. The Tranſactions of the Society for Encouragement of Arts, furniſhes, as uſual, much valuable information on different parts of this ſubject. Mr. Marſhall continues his provincial enquiries, and has publiſhed his account of the Agriculture of Glouceſterſhire: Mr. Wright has given an uſeful account of the practice of watering meadows. If any thing elſe has occurred on this ſubject it has eſcaped our moſt diligent ſearch.]

In the next department of Literature which claims our attention, we ſhall, in the firſt place, congratulate our readers on the appearance of an Engliſh Tranſlation of the firſt Volume of M. de Mouradgea D'Ohſſon's, "General Hiſtory of the Othoman Empire." For a particular account of the nature and contents of this valuable and curious work, we refer to the firſt article in our Hiſtory of the Literature of Sweden for the year 1788. In addition to what was ſaid there we have only to obſerve, that the tranſlation before us is executed with great accuracy and neatneſs; and is accompanied by the ſame beautiful and ſplendid plates which adorn the original work.

The "Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory of Scotland, from the firſt Appearance of Chriſtianity in that Kingdom, to the preſent Times, &c. by the Rev. John Skinner, a Preſbyter of the Epiſcopal Church, in Scotland," in two Volumes," appears to have been written, chiefly, with the view of vindicating the epiſcopalians, at the expence of the preſbyterians; and of reviving the exploded doctrines of the divine right of kings, paſſive obedience, and non-reſiſtance. The firſt volume contains a ſhort compendium of eccleſiaſtical hiſtory from the origin of Chriſtianity to the Reformation, in which we meet with ſome curious political information and church hiſtory relating to England, and the controverſies, councils, decretals, &c. of the Roman church. In the ſecond volume, which includes the period from the Reformation to the preſent time, the author gives full ſcope to his principles, and we may ſay to his prejudices, while deſcribing the ſtate of things from the reign of queen Mary to the Revolution, and the ſubſequent ſituation and diſtreſſes of the nonjuring clergy. On the whole, we conſider Mr. Skinner rather as an ingenious and able advocate on behalf of the rigid and nonjuring epiſcopalians of Scotland, that an impartial writer of the eccleſiaſtical hiſtory of that country. And we think that in diſcharging this taſk, he hath too frequently indulged to that ſpirit of ſarcaſm and ſeverity, which cannot add force to his arguments, but muſt prejudice the cauſe which he eſpouſes. With reſpect to the ſtyle of this work, it is principally to be blamed for ſuch imperfections as might have

have been eaſily corrected by a judicious friend; ſuch as Scotticiſms, Latiniſms, and vulgar forms of expreſſion.

Dr. Campbell's "Strictures on the Eccleſiaſtical and Literary Hiſtory of Ireland, from the moſt ancient Times to the Introduction of the Roman Ritual, and the Eſtabliſhment of Papal Supremacy, by Henry II. King of England, &c." contain a variety of intereſting and inſtructive materials. The object of this ingenious author is, to ſhew the abſurdity of thoſe zealots for Iriſh fame who, relying "upon the traditional ſongs of unlettered bards, and the ill-deviſed tales of half-learned monks," elaborately declaim on the exploits, the politeneſs, and ſplendor of their pagan anceſtors; and who, yielding to an unmanly credulity, recur "to a ſort of miracle for the exiſtence of literature and refinement in this ſequeſtered iſland, when the other Britiſh iſles, and the whole North-weſt of Europe, were ſunk in barbariſm, and canopied in ignorance." After refuting ſuch romantic and inconſiſtent repreſentations, Dr. Campbell commences his hiſtory at the earlieſt point of time which he thinks truth will warrant; viz. the firſt preaching of the goſpel in Ireland, by St. Patrick, in the fifth century. From this æra, he traces the eccleſiaſtical hiſtory of the country, to the Engliſh invaſion under Henry II.; and the civil hiſtory, to the year 1783. In this laudable attempt to fix the Iriſh hiſtory on the ſure ground of credibility, our author diſplays ſuch an extent of knowledge, cool diſcriminating powers, and uncommon liberality of mind, as peculiarly qualify him for ſuch a taſk. His reaſonings are fair and weighty; and his ſtyle is perſpicuous and energetic.

The "Short Review of the Britiſh Government in India, &c." contains very important and inſtructive matter relative to our ſettlements in that part of the globe. Notwithſtanding the many publication on the ſubject of India, which have for ſome time paſt been offered to the public, the author of the treatiſe before us aſſerts that the true ſtate of that country, with regard to its laws, cuſtoms, and manners, the character of its Mahommedan conquerors, and the conduct of the Britiſh government, has neither been fairly explained, nor rightly underſtood. This defect he propoſes to ſupply in the volume before us. And we muſt acknowledge that he appears to have collected his particulars from authentic ſources; and to have arranged his detail with judgment and impartiality. The general character of our countrymen in India, he hath ſucceſsfully vindicated againſt the baſeſt miſrepreſentations; and brought forward the moſt ſubſtantial proofs of the comparative mildneſs and humanity of the Britiſh government, which has ſecured to the natives a degree of peace and tranquillity to which they were ſtrangers under the Mahommedan princes. This diſpaſſionate and well written work is deſerving of the attentive peruſal of every Engliſhman.

During the preſent year, the high-wrought expectation of the public hath been abundantly gratified by the publication of the Third and Fourth Volumes of Doctor Burney's "General Hiſtoryo f Muſic." It is not poſſible, within the narrow limits to which we are confined, to give our readers a tolerable idea of the contents of theſe volumes. They complete a work, which had been for a long time a deſide-

desideratum in literature; and which hath been received with unbounded applause, in every country where the science of music is cultivated. The connoisseur and the polite reader will be equally instructed and entertained by the historical, biographical, and scientific materials, which afford testimony to the author's accurate and extensive knowledge of his subject, his sound unprejudiced judgment, and his nice critical taste. We have, on former occasions, paid our warm tribute of respect to Doctor Burney as a writer; and, were we to enlarge on his merits in this place, we should but repeat our former panegyric.

Mr. Howard's "Account of the principal Lazarettos in Europe; with various Papers relative to the Plague; together with farther Observations, on some foreign Prisons and Hospitals; and additional Remarks on the present State of those in Great Britain and Ireland," contains a variety of facts and observations, of the highest importance to the interest of society and of humanity. In the first part of this work we have a recital of the indefatigable labours of the excellent author in visiting the different lazarettos in Turkey, and in Europe, to ascertain the benefits which would arise from such institutions in England, as well in securing the health of the nation, as in extending its commerce. To this succeed his remarks on foreign prisons and hospitals, and on those in Great Britain and Ireland, together with his sentiments on poor-houses and schools; in which he carefully notices every excellence and defect, and offers such a number of hints for their correction of abuses, and their better regulation, as are of the utmost importance and utility. This work also contains a number of very valuable observations on the advantage which would result to society from the establishment of penitentiary-houses, and on other miscellaneous subjects. With respect to its mechanical excellences, it is recommended by a beautiful type and paper, and illustrated by twenty-two views and plans, which are executed in a superior style, worthy of so benevolent and noble a work. After the publication of this book, Mr. Howard began a new tour, intending to continue the same pursuits, and to make another zealous effort to increase the sum of human happiness. It is with great pain we are obliged to add, that accounts have been received of his having fallen a sacrifice to his generous and expanded philanthropy. While employed in administering relief to the sick, in the hospital of Cherson, which place he had reached on his journey to Constantinople, he was seized by a contagious disorder, which, in a few days, deprived the world of one of its greatest ornaments and benefactors.

Dr. Aikin's "England Delineated; or a Geographical Description of every county in England and Wales, &c." is chiefly intended for the use of young persons. The design of the author is, "to sketch out such a general view of each county, with respect to its geography, products, natural and artificial, commerce, towns, and other principal objects, as might impress upon the mind a distinct notion of its discriminating character and relative consequence." As to antiquities, family-history, and local descriptions, they have been necessarily omitted, as it was not possible to bring them within the prescribed limits of such a work. The information

tion conveyed in this volume, has been collected from the beſt ſources already known, and from the liberal communication of Doctor Aikin's friends in different parts of the kingdom. In the arrangement of his materials, our author diſcovers his uſual judgment and taſte; and the ſtyle of his compoſition is correct and pleaſing.

The treatiſe entitled, "Political Geography, Introduction to the Statiſtical Tables of the principal Empires, Kingdoms, and States in Europe," contains a compendous view of the geographical, and political ſtate of Europe, arranged ſomewhat in the form of a dictionary, in the following manner. In a number of diſtinct columns, we have the denomination of the country referred to; the population, and rate of it per mile; the principal diviſions; the population of the capitals; the army; the navy; the annual revenue; the military charges; the general expences; the public debt; the form of government; the adminiſtration of juſtice; religion; literature; natural productions, ſoil, and climate; commerce; colonies; and obſervations of an hiſtorical nature. Theſe columns occupy four tables, each on a large ſheet; and appear to have been formed with that judgment and accuracy which will juſtify us in recommending them, to perſons of general information as well as to thoſe who are deſirous of acquiring it, on account of their convenience and utility. The reſult of his computation of the naval ſtrength which the different powers of Europe may be ſuppoſed to poſſeſs, is peculiarly flattering to the pride of Engliſhmen. The whole of that ſtrength he divides into one hundred parts. Of theſe he aſſigns to Great Britain, thirty-two; France, ſixteen; Holland, eight; Italy, nine; Spain, thirteen; Portugal, three and a half; Sweden, five; Denmark, four and a half; European Ruſſia, four; Turkey and other Mahommedan powers, five.

The year 1789 hath not been fruitful in biographical productions. The appearance, however, of the fourth volume of the ſecond edition of the "Biographica Britannica, with Corrections, Enlargements, and the Addition of new Lives," will, in a great meaſure, compenſate for the want of that variety in this department of literature, which a number of publications would have afforded. The general nature and deſign of this great work are already well known to the public; and the merit of Dr. Kippis, the editor, hath been ſufficiently eſtabliſhed, by the publication of the former volumes. His principal coadjutor, Dr. Towers, hath, likewiſe, obtained a conſiderable ſhare of praiſe. The volume before us bears equal, if not ſuperior teſtimonies to the care, accuracy, learning, and judgment with which it hath been prepared for the public eye. In the preface, Dr. Kippis apologizes for the long delay of its publication, which, he tells us, aroſe from the various difficulties incident to ſuch an undertaking, of which thoſe who have not been engaged in ſuch a taſk can form but a very imperfect conception; from the immenſe quantity of new matter, which occupies more than two thirds of the book, and of which a vaſt diſproportion was furniſhed by himſelf; and from a particular engagement, which hath demanded a principal ſhare of his time and attention. The new lives are thirty-five in number; and contain a vaſt fund of curious and entertaining matter. The Corrigenda and Addenda to the former volumes, and the numerous additions, to the old

lives,

lives, are alſo exceedingly valuable, and contribute much to the perfection and uſefulneſs of the work. Of the various entertainment to be derived from this admirable collection, our readers may form ſome judgment from the extracts we have given among our Biographical Anecdotes and Characters. It is with regret that we learn from the preface, that Doctor Kippis means to decline the very active part which he has hitherto taken in this work; and that he is not to be conſidered as amenable to the public, with regard to the appearance of the ſucceeding volumes. We hope, however, that a publication which hath derived a conſiderable increaſe of value and reputation, from his attention and diligence, and his peculiar qualifications as a biographer, will ſtill enjoy the advantage of his ſuperintendence, and repeated contributions.

Doctor Gillies's "View of the Reign of Frederick II. of Pruſſia; with a Parallel between that Prince and Philip II. of Macedon," is principally compiled from Frederick's Poſthumous Works; and frequently delivered in his own words. The author hath, likewiſe, availed himſelf of the aſſiſtance afforded by baron Hertzberg's Diſcourſes. From theſe ſources he hath drawn a moſt flattering picture of his illuſtrious hero. Even ſuch parts of his conduct as have been deemed erroneous, or ſeverely cenſured by preceding writers, receive from Doctor Gillies indiſcriminate commendation and praiſe. But what is chiefly original in this work is, the parallel between Frederick and Philip of Macedon. In this parallel Doctor Gillies diſcovers conſiderable learning and ingenuity. His plan is clear and perſpicuous; his deſcriptions are animated, and energetic; and his reflections ſenſible and judicious. We cannot, however, diſmiſs this work without obſerving, that it is too frequently diſfigured by the ſame blemiſhes which we freely reprehended in the author's Hiſtory of Greece: an affected pomp of language, meritricious ornaments, and provincial modes of expreſſion.

Mr. Toulmin's "Review of the Life, Character, and Writings of the rev. John Biddle, A. M. &c." is a reſpectable and well written narrative, ſacred to the memory of the father of the Engliſh Unitarians. Mr. Biddle was a ſenſible and learned man, of great piety and integrity, who, on account of his differing from the commonly received opinions, underwent a variety of perſecutions, during the protectorate of Oliver Cromwell, and the reign of Charles II. which terminated in a diſeaſe which proved fatal to him. We heartily recommend this publication, as we perfectly concur in the opinion of the author, that "memoirs of thoſe who have diſplayed ſingular virtues, and ſupported ſingular ſufferings, for what they deemed divine truth, will always be uſeful; to ſhew the power of religious principle, and to convince men, that true piety is not peculiar to thoſe who embrace any particular creed, but the genuine fruit of thoſe principles which are common to all Chriſtians."

Mr. Norris's "Memoirs of the Reign of Boſſa Ahadee, King of Dahomy, an inland Country of Guiney, &c." contain an account of the horrid ſcenes of bloodſhed and murder which were tranſacted during the reign of that African tyrant. As the author's principal object ſeems to be, to diminiſh the odium affixed to the ſlave-trade, we ſuſpect that he hath been too credulous in

admitting the exaggerated repreſentions of the natives. He ſeems, however, to have given a faithful relation of what he heard; and hath added ſeveral curious particulars, the reſult of his own attentive obſervation. But the greateſt value of this work ariſes from the incidental details which the author gives of the natural hiſtory of the country. From theſe we have received both information and entertainment.

The "Memoirs of Prince William Henry, Duke of Glouceſter," ſon of the princeſs, afterwards queen Anne, and prince George of Denmark, conſiſt, chiefly, of a detail of the amuſements of the young prince, which were of a military kind, and of thoſe inſtances of ſpirit and vivacity of ſentiment, which gave promiſes of a manly and generous character, had he arrived at a maturer age. Theſe Memoirs have been compiled from an original tract written by Jenkin Lewis, who was placed as an attendant on the prince's perſon, and from other authentic documents. They are drawn up with uncommon ſimplicity; and contain whatever can be ſuppoſed to be intereſting in the life of a youth who died at eleven years of age.

The "Sketch of the Life and Character of the late Doctor Monſey, Phyſician to the Royal Hoſpital at Chelſea, &c." conſiſts of a number of curious circumſtances relative to Doctor Monſey, to his patrons, and to his acquaintance in the higher and lower ranks of ſociety. The author, who appears to have been intimately acquainted with that ſingular character, is a ſenſible and lively writer. And, notwithſtandſtanding that his Sketch is too irregular and deſultory to obtain preeminence in the biographical claſs, it will be found to recommend itſelf by a variety of intereſting and entertaining anecdotes, as well as judicious and uſeful reflections.

Our account of ſuch publications as combine together the ſubjects of Hiſtory and Antiquities, we ſhall preface by announcing a new and ſplendid edition of Camden's "Britannia; or, a Chorographigal Deſcription of the flouriſhing Kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland, and the Iſlands adjacent, from the earlieſt Antiquity, in three vols." By Richard Gough, Eſq. F. A. and R. S. S. dedicated by permiſſion to his majeſty. This work is tranſlated from the edition publiſhed by the author in 1607; and is conſiderably enlarged, by the improvements which the more extended knowledge of the preſent day, and the editor's indefatigable induſtry, have enabled him to introduce. It is alſo illuſtrated by a ſet of new maps, and other copper plates. Thoſe who recollect how well qualified Mr. Gough is for a work of this kind, from the peculiar zeal with which he is well known to have devoted himſelf to the ſtudy of antiquities and topography; and who conſider at the ſame time, that his additions and corrections are the reſult of many years travel, and perſonal enquiries, will readily apprehend the value and importance of this edition.

In our hiſtory of the Domeſtic Literature of the year 1787, we mentioned the publication of Mr. Pinkerton's "Diſſertation on the Origin and Progreſs of the Scythians, or Goths," which we commended as an ingenious and learned performance. That treatiſe was intended by the author to be introductory to a larger work, which has appeared this year under the title of "An Enquiry into the Hiſtory of Scot-

Scotland preceding the Reign of Malcolm III. or the Year 1056; including the authentic History of that Period: in two Volumes." These volumes contain a variety of curious and elaborate researches into the most obscure and difficult parts of the Scottish history, in which the author establishes a number of facts respecting the different tribes who peopled that country, which are of considerable importance. The most interesting part of these researches relates to the Picts. And the principal object of Mr. Pinkerton seems to be, to shew that the Picts were not Celts, or Welsh, as is affirmed by Camden, Lloyd, and the two Macphersons, but Goths. Their origin he traces to a particular tribe, who originally inhabited the western borders of the Euxine Sea; whence he traces their progress to Scandinavia, to the Orkney islands, to Ireland, to the Ebudæ islands, where they founded a kingdom, and whence they gradually spread over the Northern parts of Scotland, forcing to the southward the Cumraig Celtæ, who had been the original inhabitants of that country. The epoch of their settlement in Scotland he fixes at three hundred years before Christ. After this Mr. Pinkerton proceeds to refute many of the absurd and childish fables which have been circulated concerning the old Gael or Celts; and to lay before his readers several entertaining dissertations on the Pictish language, manners, and antiquities in Scotland. On the whole, we consider this work to be a considerable acquisition to the republic of letters; and a testimony to the authors unwearied industry, and great acuteness of mind. It is, however, disgraced by every fault which we have repeatedly and freely censured in his former publications. The great self-importance and vanity of the author, and the supercilious contempt in which he holds most other writers who have treated on the same subject, are continually apparent. His work, by the needless digressions in which he indulges himself, and the frequent repetitions which he introduces, is swelled considerably beyond the bounds which ought to have been prescribed to it. And his style and manner of writing are distinguished by continual and gross transgressions against the rules of grammatical construction, and the authorized modes of expression, and of orthography.

Mr. Pilkington's "View of the Present State of Derbyshire, with an Account of its most remarkable Antiquities, &c. in two vols." is a work which is deserving of a favourable reception from the student in topography. The first volume contains the natural history of the county, and its subterranneous geography, with an account of its different mineral and metallic productions, which appears to be drawn up with great attention and accuracy; and which is of general interest, as intimately connected with the natural history of the kingdom at large. The second volume is of a more local nature, and describes the state of arts and manufactures in the county; the customs and manners of the inhabitants; its topography as it is divided into different deaneries; the genealogical history of families, with which are connected some curious and entertaining biographical sketches; and the curiosities and antiquities of the county. These volumes appear to be the result of careful and attentive enquiry; and are adapted to inform and entertain readers of every description.

"The History and Antiquities of the Town and County of the Town of

Newcaſtle upon Tyne, &c. by John Brand, M. A. Fellow and Secretary of the Society of Antiquaries, in two vols." is a topographical work which will be chiefly valuable to the inhabitants of that town. The firſt volume contains an account of the ancient fortifications, churches, monaſteries, and other public edifices at Newcaſtle; with a deſcription of the town and antiquities of Gateshead, in the county of Durham. The ſecond volume details the hiſtory of Newcaſtle as a corporate town, or borough; the ſtate of its commerce, particularly the coal-trade; the hiſtory of the incorporated trading, or manufactoring companies; a miſcellaneous account of the officers and ſervants of the corporation, &c. &c. To each volume is added an appendix, conſiſting of original documents, acts of parliament, antiquarian reſearches, and other papers relative to the ſubject of the Hiſtory. Mr. Brand appears to have ſpared no pains in collecting the vaſt maſs of materials which compoſe theſe volumes. He ſeems to have drawn them from the beſt ſources; and to have omitted no circumſtance of the leaſt importance to his deſign. But as a compoſition, his work is ill digeſted and injudicious. And we frequently found ourſelves fatigued with the author's prolixity, and tedious minuteneſs of detail. This, however, may be accounted for from his evident partiality to his ſubject; and may not, probably, prove equally unacceptable to the inhabitants of Newcaſtle. It is proper to add, that theſe volumes are embelliſhed by a number of well executed and expenſive engravings.

The "Hiſtorical Account of the Royal Hoſpital for Seamen at Greenwich, by John Cooke, A. M. and John Maule, A. M. Chaplains," contains whatever is curious or uſeful, in the hiſtory of that noble ſtructure, from its foundation to the year 1778; with an account of its preſent ſtate and conſtitution, of the various grants and donations, public and private, and other ſources, whence its large revenue is derived. To this account of the hoſpital, the authors have added that of the ancient royal palace called Placentia, which ſtood upon the ſpot occupied by the preſent inſtitution. Of this palace they have given a beautiful view from an engraving publiſhed by the Society of Antiquaries; as well as a large perſpective of the hoſpital from the river Thames, and other elegant plates. On the whole, this diſtinct and accurate account of an inſtitution ſo honourable to the grandeur and generoſity of the nation, is entitled to a favourable reception from the public.

In our account of the Literature of the year 1787, we took occaſion to explain the deſign, and to ſpeak in warm terms of a collection of "Original Letters written during the Reign of Henry VI. Edward IV. and Richard III. by various Perſons of rank and conſequence, with Notes hiſtorical and explanatory," by Mr. now ſir John Fenn, knight, in two volumes. This curious and intereſting work has been enlarged, during the preſent year, by the publication of two additional volumes. As the former volumes contained a ſelection of ſuch letters as chiefly related to public affairs, and were valuable in illuſtrating hiſtorical events; the preſent particularly reſpect private occurrences and domeſtic affairs, and exhibit a ſtriking and artleſs picture of the manners of thoſe remote and dark ages. They alſo contain a number of miſcellaneous circumſtances, which will

will afford amuſement as well information to the reader. Such curious papers, however, as relate to public affairs are not entirely omitted; as may be perceived from the extracts which we have given under our head of Antiquities. On the whole, the public are under conſiderable obligations to the editor of this work, for the patient attention, accuracy, and elegance with which he has executed it; and we doubt not but that the reception it will meet with will encourage him to communicate the other letters which he has in his poſſeſſion, written during the remainder of the reign of Edward IV. and thoſe of Richard III. and Henry VII.

The Society of Antiquaries continue with unabated zeal, to encourage ſuch laborious and literary purſuits as tend to throw light on the hiſtory and antiquities of this country, or on general hiſtory and antiquities. Their ninth volume of the "Archæologia, or Miſcellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquities," excluſive of its Appendix, contains thirty-one articles on intereſting and entertaining ſubjects. Among the articles which particularly engaged our attention, we may point out, the learned and ingenious Mr. Daines Barrington's Hiſtorical Diſcuſſion of the Game of Cheſs; a ſenſible and pleaſing Diſſertation on Satirical Medals, by Pere Francois Phillippe Gourdin, Benedictine, of the order of St. Maure, at Rouen; governor Pownal's Obſervations on what is commonly termed Gothic Architecture, and on the Corporation of Free Maſons; a Vindication of the Authenticity of the Parian Chronicle, by Richard Gough, Eſq.; the Obſervations on the Waldenſes, formerly tenants of the manor of Darenth, in the County of Kent, by the rev. Samuel Denne; and an Eſſay intended to prove that the Engliſh Language was formerly Gothic, by the rev. Mr. Drake. The Appendix contains extracts from ſuch communications which it has not been thought proper to publiſh entire, which offer many curious particulars to the eye of the antiquary. This volume, likewiſe, as well as the preceding ones, is enriched by a number of excellent prints, by which the reader will be improved and entertained.

Among the books of travels of the year 1789, the "Journey through the Crimea to Conſtantinople; in a ſeries of Letters from the right hon. Elizabeth Lady Craven, to his ſerene Highneſs the Margrave of Brandenburgh Anſpach," excited conſiderable curioſity in the minds of the public. In this volume we meet with a number of lively and entertaining obſervations made in a rapid tour through France, Italy, Germany, Poland, Ruſſia, the Crimea, Conſtantinople, the Grecian iſlands, Romania, Bulgaria, Wallachia, and Hungary, by which we have been frequently amuſed, if we have received no great degree of information. Many of her deſcriptions are ſpirited and picturesque; and her anecdotes of the different courts and capitals through which ſhe paſſed, are happy and pleaſing. Thoſe who take up theſe Letters with the view of being entertained with the curſory remarks of an enterpriſing and intelligent female, on ſcenes intereſting to the philoſopher, the antiquary, and the politician, and with a diſpoſition to overlook the errors and inelegances which frequently occur in a looſe epiſtolary correſpondence, will not be diſappointed.

We have been, likewiſe, agreeably entertained by the remarks of another

nother female traveller. Mrs. Piozzi, in her "Obſervation and Reflections made in the Courſe of a Journey through France, Italy, and Germany, in two vols." hath gratified her readers with many animated and judicious remarks on the ſcenery through which ſhe paſſed, the manners and cuſtoms of the people with whom ſhe converſed, and on the other objects which arreſt the attention of the accompliſhed and literary traveller. Beaten as the track has been through which Mrs. Piozzi paſſed, and rapid as was her progreſs through the countries which ſhe deſcribes, ſtill ſhe hath gleaned a number of beauties from the productions of ancient and of modern art, as well as thoſe of nature, which render her volumes inſtructive and amuſing. And the traits which ſhe has given of national character are ſketched with a bold and maſterly hand. We were ſorry, however, to meet with many opportunities for cenſure, in the ſtyle and language of theſe volumes. This remark might be attributed to faſtidious criticiſm, did not Mrs. Piozzi's accompliſhments and erudition aſſign her a rank ſuperior to that of the generality of female writers.

The "Travels in Spain, &c. by the Chevalier de Bourgoanne; to which are added copious Extracts from the Eſſays of M. Peyron; tranſlated from the French, in two vols." will be found to contain much new and intereſting information, even by thoſe who are familiarly acquainted with the different writers who, of late years, have been directing the public attention to that country. M. de Bourgoanne reſided many years in Spain, in the quality of ſecretary to the French ambaſſador: and he ſeems to have poſſeſſed the greateſt advantages for obtaining information reſpecting the government, revenues, commerce, internal police, and manners of the people. In deſcribing theſe, he has abundantly ſupplied the defects of former travellers. His account of the political ſituation of the country, in particular, will furniſh the intelligent reader with many important reflections. The extract from M. Peyron, of which the third volume conſiſts, ſupply us with the remarks on the natural hiſtory, antiquities, literature, theatres, and modern manners of the Spaniards, which occurred to that writer in a journey from Barcelona to Madrid. Among other curious particulars they preſent us with tranſlations of the inſcriptions in the Alhambra of Grenada. With reſpect to the authenticity of the information which theſe volumes convey, and the general merits of the work, the declaration of M. Mentelle, the French cenſor of the preſs, afford the moſt ſatisfactory teſtimony. "According," ſays he, "to the knowledge which my employment has given me of that kingdom, and the care I have taken to aſſure myſelf of the accuracy of this new work, I can certify that its contents are exactly true, and preſent a correct picture of the preſent ſtate of Spain. The critical obſervations which it contains are, beſide, offered with ſo much modeſty, that they cannot but be acceptable to every nation that is a friend to truth, and which would not be offended but by our exaggeration of its defects." The tranſlation appears to be executed with fidelity and accuracy.

The "Letters from Barbary, France, Spain, Portugal, &c. by an Engliſh Officer, in two vols." contain an accouut of different journeys, ſome on buſineſs, others from pleaſur

pleaſure or curioſity, with the reflections ſuggeſted to the author by an attention to the government, genius, and manners of the people with whom he mixed. The journey to Barbary was an embaſſy from general Cornwallis, governor of Gibraltar, to the emperor of Moroco; which afforded the author much ſubject for political and moral reflection, and led him to paint, in lively colours, the pernicious effects of a deſpotic government, and an intollerant religion. The letters from France, Spain, and Portugal, contain a variety of obſervations on national character, taſte, agriculture, commerce, manufactures, and other ſubjects of political ſpeculation. On the whole, the remarks of this author are the productions of a ſenſible, intelligent mind, and will be read by thoſe who are more deſirous of information than of entertainment, with pleaſure and advantage.

The volume of "Travels in Sicily and Malta; tranſlated from the French of M. De Non, Gentleman in ordinary to the King of France, &c." is a publication which will be peruſed with pleaſure by the hiſtorian and antiquary. For notwithſtanding that many of the claſſic ſcenes in Sicily have been, not long ago, agreeably deſcribed by one of our own countrymen, there were ſtill abundant gleanings left, in a country ſo diſtinguiſhed in hiſtory, to intereſt the curioſity of learned and ſcientific travellers. In deſcribing the ſublime and beautiful objects of nature, which ſupply ample matter for the pictureſque painter, as well as ſpeculative philoſopher, M. De Non is an intereſting and inſtructive companion. The lively and animated account which he gives us of the manners of the Sicilians, appears to be drawn with attention and fidelity. And his political view of the government of the iſland is conciſe and judicious. But his ſtudies have been principally devoted to its antiquities, and natural hiſtory. And he ſeems to have been poſſeſſed of all the enthuſiaſm and knowledge neceſſary to his examining ſuch objects with peculiar advantage. His deſcription, likewiſe, of Malta, and the few antiquities to be met with on that rocky iſland, is accurate and pleaſing.

Mr. Anburey's "Travels through the interior Part of America, in a Series of Letters, in two vols." do not contain much new information reſpecting the genius and manners of the inhabitants, or the natural hiſtory of the country. The ſcenes which he deſcribes are confined to thoſe parts which were traverſed by general Burgoyne's army; and the events which he relates are chiefly ſuch as are connected with the hiſtory of that army, before and after the convention at Saratoga. In the narrative part of this publication, and the reflections with which it is interſperſed, the wiſh of the author to vindicate the conduct of general Burgoyne is a prinpal feature. Of the Americans he is not diſpoſed to ſpeak in the moſt favourable manner, though he occaſionally does juſtice to the merits of individuals. On the whole, theſe volumes are written in a correct and eaſy ſtyle; they abound in intereſting and diverting anecdotes; and will afford much amuſement to thoſe who are but little acquainted with the hiſtory of America.

Mr. Conſett's "Tour through Sweden, Swediſh Lapland, Finland and Denmark, in a Series of Letters, &c." was undertaken in conſequence of a wager; and performed with ſuch expedition, that much time

could not be found for the examination of particular objects. Much information, therefore, cannot be expected relative to matters not already known, or concerning which it would be difficult to acquire knowledge. We have, however, received conſiderable entertainment from the lively obſervations, pleaſant anecdotes, and ſhort deſcriptive ſketches which this volume contains.

The "Journey through Sweden, containing a detailed Account of its Population, Agriculture, Commerce, and Finances, &c. by a Dutch Officer, and tranſlated into Engliſh by Wm. Radcliffe, A. B," is the production of an intelligent and diſcerning traveller, by which we have been informed, as well as entertained. There is ſcarcely any thing curious in Sweden, either among the productions of nature or of art, which has eſcaped his notice. His account of the famous copper mine at Kopparberg, and of the iron mine of Dannemora, which have been examined but by few travellers, we found to be peculiarly intereſting. His obſervations on the genius and manners of the people are written with vivacity and preciſion; and his view of the ſtate of agriculture, and the commercial objects with which the country abounds, will be acceptable to the political œconomiſt. Several of the letters towards the concluſion of this volume preſent us with an abridgement of the Swediſh hiſtory from the acceſſion of Guſtavus Vaſa, in 1523, to the year 1786. The laſt letter relates to the hiſtory of Denmark, and is principally employed in vindicating the memory of the unfortunate Struenzee.

The "Account of the Shipwreck and Captivity of M. de Briſſon," beſide relating the almoſt incredible diſtreſſes and cruelties to which he and his companions were ſubjected, and to which moſt of them fell victims, contains a number of miſcellaneous remarks on the character and cuſtoms of the African Arabs, and on the Deſart between Senegal and Morocco, which may aſſiſt in illuſtrating the genius of that ſavage people, as well as ſupply ſome uſeful hints for commerce and agriculture. In this narrative the author confines himſelf to facts, which are related with the utmoſt ſimplicity, and which are, frequently, exceedingly curious and intereſting.

Mr. Shaw's "Tour to the Weſt of England, in the Year 1788," contains a lively and agreeable detail of the various objects that intereſted the author's attention: but is of too miſcellaneous a complexion for us to lay the outlines of it before our readers. His deſcription is frequently accompanied with quotations from the poets; and diverſified by the inſertion of a number of entertaining anecdotes. But, perhaps, by his readers in general, he will be thought to be minute to a fault, in encumbering his work with the genealogies of families, the exact meaſurement of public buildings, and the dimenſions of the pictures in the different ſeats which he viſited. Such particulars we rather expect to meet with in that ſpecies of publications which bear the humble titles of Guides to Blenheim, Oxford, London, &c.

The "Tour through Part of France, containing a Deſcription of Paris, Cherbourg, and Ermenonville, &c." though principally confined to ſubjects which are become trite and familiar to the Engliſh reader, is, nevertheleſs, written in an agreeable and lively manner. The account, in particular, of the

ſtupendous

ſtupendous works carrying on at the entrance to the harbour of Cherbourg, will be found diſtinct and intereſting. In deſcribing the ſcene at Ermenonville, where the celebrated Rouſſeau paſſed the evening of his life, he appears an enthuſiaſtic admirer of that writer; and deſcribes every object, even the moſt minute and trivial, with the ſtrongeſt partiality. From contemplating this ſpot the author ſeems to have derived the principal gratification which his Tour afforded him; and in his reflections on it, he chiefly diſcovers his ſentiment and taſte.

The laſt place under this head we have reſerved for the "Obſervations chiefly relative to Picturesque Beauty, made in the Year 1776, on ſeveral Parts of Great Britain; particularly the Highlands of Scotland, by W. Gilpin, A. M. in two volumes." This elegant and pleaſing work is a continuation of thoſe ſcientific tours in which we formerly accompanied our author with uncommon entertainment and advantage. And it is diſtinguiſhed by the ſame marks of refined taſte and accurate judgment which have already extorted our enthuſiaſtic praiſe. It is alſo recommended by a greater variety of incidental matter, ſuggeſted by the hiſtory and events of the country through which our author paſſed. Were we to ſelect ſome of the moſt valuable of theſe obſervations, they would be thoſe containing his criticiſms on the effect of ruins, and his general remarks on the ſcenery in Scotland. To all travellers of taſte, Mr. Gilpin's Obſervations will be highly acceptable.

Of the Political publications with which the preſs hath teemed, neither the deſign of our work, nor our limits will permit us to make particular mention. We ſhall, therefore, only claſs the principal of them in groups.

In our laſt Annual Regiſter we mentioned the titles of a variety of pamphlets, by writers who enliſted themſelves under the banners of the different contending parties in the grand political ſtruggle to which the king's unhappy malady gave riſe. His recovery did not cloſe this warfare. It called the attention of ſpeculative minds to the queſtions which had been agitated; and on which they could now indulge their ſentiments with leſs anxiety, though with an equal conviction of the importance of the principles which they had advanced. Others gladly ſeized the occaſion to triumph over the ſuppoſed diſappointment of their opponents: and others to vindicate themſelves and their party from inſinuations which they deemed illiberal and malignant.

At the head of this various liſt we may place "An impartial Report of all the Proceedings in Parliament, on the late important Subject of a Regency, &c." which appears to be the compilation of a judicious and impartial writer, who hath riſked no opinion of his own, but confined himſelf to a plain and ſimple narration of the occurrences, and of the parliamentary debates, in which nothing of moment appears to be omitted. The "Reflections on the Conſequences of his Majeſty's Recovery from his late Indiſpoſition," deſerve, likewiſe, to be claſſed among the beſt political pieces which the ſubject called forth, from the apparent good intentions of the writer, and the ſerioufneſs and importance of the thoughts which he diſpaſſionately offers to the attention of the public. The "Free Thoughts on his Majeſty's Recovery and Reſumption

ſumption of the Royal Powers," the "Letters to the People of Great Britain and Ireland, on the expected Addreſſes to his Majeſty, &c." And the "Letter to the right hon. Charles James Fox, on the late Conduct of his Party," were the productions of ſenſible and ſpirited writers. On the ſame ſubject were publiſhed "An Addreſs to his Majeſty on his happy Recovery, with a ſhort View of his Reign;" "Obſervations upon the late National Embarraſſment, and the Proceedings in Parliament relative to the ſame, by J. L. de Lolme, LL. D;" "An Anſwer" to that publication; "The Royal Interview, a Fragment, by the Author of a Letter of a Country Gentleman to a Member of Parliament;" "A retroſpective View of the late Political Enquiry; with Remarks on the Conduct of the Managers on both Sides;" "The Fall of Faction, or Edmund's Viſion, &c.;" "The Funeral of Mrs. Regency;" and "Four pleaſant Epiſtles, written for the Entertainment and Gratification of four unpleaſant Characters, &c."

The ſubject of the repeal of the Teſt and Corporation acts did not bring many combatants into the field, during the year 1789. Among the advocates for aboliſhing all invidious diſtinctions among the ſubjects of the ſtate, we find the ſenſible and liberal author of "a Letter to the Biſhops, on the Application of the Proteſtant Diſſenters to Parliament;" and the author of "A Letter to Edward Jefferies, Eſq. Chairman of the Committee of Proteſtant Diſſenters, &c." whoſe language breathes a ſpirit of candour and of piety. On the other ſide of the queſtion have appeared, "Two Letters, addreſſed to the Delegates of the ſeveral Proteſtant Diſſenters who met at Devizes;" "A Letter to Earl Stanhope, on the Subject of the Teſt, as objected to in a Pamphlet recommended by his Lordſhip;" and "Obſervations on the Conduct of the Proteſtant Diſſenters." In theſe tracts the authors are ſtrenous advocates for the doctrines of a neceſſary alliance between church and ſtate; the neceſſity of a religious teſt to political unanimity; and the danger of innovation. The laſt mentioned treatiſe, particularly, is filled with ſevere invectives againſt the Proteſtant Diſſenters; and calls loudly on the commons, the lords, and laſtly on the crown, to refuſe them "their imaginary rights," and "the demand of privileges to which they have no pretenſions."

Intimately connected with the ſame ſubject is the pamphlet of Mr. Berrington, entitled, "The Rights of Diſſenters from the eſtabliſhed Church, in relation principally to Engliſh Catholics." In this temperate and manly publication, Mr. Berrington diſcuſſes all the objections which can be advanced by the enemies to a free and unlimited toleration; and from a ſeries of ſenſible and well arranged arguments deduces this concluſion, that all Diſſenters from the national church, are entitled to every civil right which that church enjoys; and that not a ſingle reaſon which ſhould weigh on the mind of a patriot or a citizen, can be aſſigned for their excluſion.

The queſtion relative to the Slave Trade hath again employed the pens of able advocates on both ſides. Among the moſt capital publications in favour of the abolition ſcheme we meet with "Conſiderations on the Abolition of Slavery and the Slave Trade, upon Grounds of natural, religious, and political Duty," at the end of which is the ſignature, T. Burgeſs, C. C. C.; "An Eſſay on the comparative Efficiency of Regulation

lation or Abolition, as applied to the Slave Trade, ſhewing, that the latter only can remove the Evils to be found in that Commerce, by the Rev. T. Clarkſon, M. A." On the ſame ſide appeared "Scripture the Friend of Freedom;" "An Enquiry into the Origin, Progreſs, and preſent State of Slavery, by a Member of the Society of univerſal Good Will;" "Doubts concerning the Legality of Slavery in any Part of the Britiſh Dominions." "Letters on Slavery, by Wm. Dickſon, &c." and "Liberty or Death, a tract, in which is vindicated the obvious Practicability of trading to the Coaſt of Guinea, for its natural Products, in lieu of the Slave-trade &c. by John Lowe, Jun."

The other ſide of the queſtion, among other ſenſible and well-written pamphlets, hath produced "No Abolition; or an Attempt to prove to the Conviction of every rational Britiſh Subject, that the Abolition of the Britiſh Trade with Africa for Negroes, would be a Meaſure as unjuſt as impolitic, &c.;" "Obſervations occaſioned by the Attempts made in England to effectuate the Abolition of the Slave Trade, &c. by G. Franklyn, Eſq." of Jamaica; "An anſwer to the rev. Mr. Clarkſon's Eſſay, &c." by the ſame gentleman; "Conſiderations on the fatal Conſequences of aboliſhing the Slave-trade, in the preſent ſituation of Great Britain;" and "Doubts on the Abolition of the Slave-trade, by an old Member of Parliament." On the ſame ſide were publiſhed "Reflections on the preſent State of the Slaves in the Britiſh Plantations, and the Slave-trade from Africa;" and "Obſervations on the true Method of Treatment and Uſage of the Negro Slaves in the Britiſh Weſt India Iſlands, &c. by Thomas Atwood."

The affair of honour, as it has been called, between the duke of York and col. Lenox, produced a violent and angry "Letter to the King, &c. by Theophilus Swift, Eſq." in which a plentiful ſhare of abuſe is caſt on the colonel, and likewiſe on Mr. Pitt. For our author hath thought proper to give a political turn to the quarrel, and to conſider it as a miniſterial manœuvre. A captain of a company in one of the regiments of guards, in his "Short Review of the recent Affair, &c." hath embraced the other ſide of the queſtion, and is liberal of his cenſures on the conduct of the royal duke. This writer, alſo, hath given a political turn to the quarrel; but he conceives it to have been an oppoſition manœuvre. What foundation either of the gentlemen had for their ſuggeſtions, we have not been able to diſcover.

Among the other Political treatiſes which have appeared during the preſent year, the following, were it compatible with our plan, would deſerve to be diſtinctly noticed. "Conſiderations on the Pruſſian Treaty, &c." Sir John Dalrymple's "Queries concerning the Conduct which England ſhould follow in foreign Politics, in the preſent State of Europe;" Mr. Rous's ſecond addreſs to the public, or "An Explanation of the miſtaken Principle on which the Commutation Act was founded; and the Nature of the Miſchiefs that muſt follow from a perſeverance in it;" "Thoughts on the State of the Nation, or the real ſituation of Great Britain delineated and demonſtrated;" "A ſhort Political Review of the Year 1788;" "A Letter to John Horne Tooke, Eſq, occaſioned by his Two Pair of Portraits, and other late Publications;" "A Review of the Parliamentary Conduct of the right hon. Charles James

James Fox, and the right hon. Edmund Burke;" "Secret Influence, or Bute and Pitt Administrations virtually the same, &c." "The Conduct of the present Parliament considered, previous to its Dissolution;" and "An Address to the Electors of Great Britain and Ireland, on the approaching General Election; containing plain constitutional Truths, and seasonable Observations, respectfully offered to their serious Consideration, by an independent Freeholder."

In enumerating the publications which are to be referred to the head of Critical, Classical, and Polite Literature, we would, in the first place, recommend to the notice of our readers, "Caii Crispi Sallustii Opera omnia;" a new and beautiful impression, from the edition of Cortius, collated with those of Havercamp, and Gabriel Antonius. This work has been executed with singular diligence and care; and from its correctness and typographical excellencies, is entitled to a place in the libraries of curious collectors, as well as in those of the scholar. The editor hath likewise preserved an uniform mode of spelling throughout; a point to which too little attention has been most commonly paid: and hath added a table of various readings from Havercamp's edition.

The classical reader will also willingly acknowledge his obligations to the editor of "Titi Livii Patavini singularum, quæ supersunt, Decadum Liber prior, &c." which is offered as a specimen of a more extended compilation that is preparing for the press. The object of the author is to publish the first book of every entire Decad of Livy, with an abridgment of the notes of Gronovius, Perizonius, Dukerius, Drakenborchius, and of other commentators, whose works may prove useful in illustrating the various readings, or in preserving the purity of the text. Such of these notes as are connected with subjects of criticism or chronology, and will not admit of abridgment, he intends to add at the end of each book. The books contained in this specimen are the first, the twenty-first, and the thirty-first. The orthography is that of Drakenborchius. To this version the editor hath prefixed several useful essays taken from Facciolatus, Sigonius, and Crevier; and the fragment of the ninety-first book of Livy, lately discovered and published by Bruno, and afterwards by Brotier in his Amsterdam edition of Tacitus. From this brief view of the design of the editor, the classical scholar will easily entertain an idea of the information and assistance, which he may expect to derive from the publication before us, while studying the works of the Roman historian.

The learned world are also much indebted to the editor of the "Appendix ad Lexicon Græco Latinum; a Johanne Scapula constructum, & ad alia Lexica Græca, e Codice Manuscripto, olim Askeviano, in Lucem nunc primum Vindicata." The authorities in this work are chiefly collected from the Attic poets, and particularly from the tragedies of Æschylus. The pages of Scapula's Lexicon are marked on the margin of the Appendix, which will be found to contain several words omitted by all the Greek lexicographers. And in the preface, which is in Latin, there are some hints which may prove of service to future publishers of Lexicons. The learning, accuracy, and diligence which have been bestowed on this work, render it a valuable acquisition to the classical reader.

The

"The Poetic of Ariſtotle, tranſlated from the Greek, with notes, by Henry James Pye, Eſq." is an accurate and elegant verſion of that valuable treatiſe, which may be juſtly termed the firſt work in philoſophic criticiſm. When we conſider the peculiar difficulties that attended the taſk which Mr. Pye undertook, occaſioned by the ſcholaſtic cloſeneſs of the original, and a text which muſt in ſome meaſure have been injured in the hands of ſucceſſive tranſcribers, we think that very great merit is due to him, for the beauty and the preciſion with which he has completed the firſt good tranſlation of the Poetic which has appeared in the Engliſh language. In his Preface he explains the nature and peculiar features of the Grecian drama in a manner that beſpeaks a mind well inſtructed in the principles of true criticiſm: and his conciſe but ſatisfactory notes, afford ſufficient teſtimony to his literature, diligence, and taſte. This ſpecimen leads us to form very exalted expectations from Mr. Pye's promiſe of a continued commentary on the original, illuſtrated by examples drawn from the modern, and particularly the Engliſh ſtage. Such a performance may prove of the utmoſt importance to dramatic writers, by leading them to a familiar acquaintance with the nature and firſt principles of their art: and it may contribute to correct the increaſing degeneracy of the public taſte.

A very high ſhare of commendation is, likewiſe, due to another tranſlation of the ſame work, "with Notes on the Tranſlation and on the Original; and two Diſſertations on poetical and muſical Imitation; by Thomas Twining M. A." This author, as well as Mr. Pye, poſſeſſes great learning, and a correct taſte; and he appears to be intimately acquainted with the more modern verſions of Ariſtotle, in the different languages of Europe. That he ſhould frequently differ from the former tranſlator, will not be wondered at, when it is conſidered how abſtruſe the original frequently is; and that different interpretations of ſuch paſſages as are mutilated or corrupt, muſt naturally be expected from different men of learning who have no communication with each other. This tranſlator, however, ſeems to have produced a verſion "ſufficiently cloſe and accurate to ſatisfy thoſe readers who are acquainted with the original, and at the ſame time ſufficiently Engliſh to be read by thoſe who are not." The language of Mr. Twining is perſpicuous and elegant; and he frequently diſcovers great minuteneſs of attention, in illuſtrating the meaning of particular paſſages. His numerous notes alſo diſplay extenſive knowledge, great judgment, and laboured accuracy. The author's diſſertations are, on Poetry, conſidered as an imitative art, and on the different ſenſes of the word Imitative, as applied by the ancients and by the moderns to Muſic; in both of which he diſtinguiſhes himſelf by great ingenuity, delicacy, and addreſs.

Mr. Taylor's tranſlation of "The philoſophical and mathematical Commentaries of Proclus, &c." with preliminary diſſertations, in two volumes, appears to have been undertaken by him with the view of attracting the notice of the public, by entering into an avowed "vindication of philoſophical polytheiſm, as embraced by the wiſdom and ſupported by the general voice of antiquity." As a tranſlator Mr. Taylor hath few pretenſions to merit. He hath frequently failed in attempting to elucidate the obſcurities of the original, though aſſiſted by

by the Latin verſion of Barocius, of which he hath made liberal uſe. His diſſertations are, on the Platonic doctrine of ideas, on the demonſtrative ſyllogiſm, on the nature of the ſoul, and on the true end of geometry. To theſe he hath added a hiſtory of the reſtoration of the Platonic theology by the latter Platoniſts, and a tranſlation of Proclus's Elements of Theology. In reading theſe diſſertations, the ſmile will often be excited at the conſequence and ſelf-importance which Mr. Taylor aſſumes, and the credulity with which he ſwallows the abſurd tales and the dark myſteries of paganiſm, which he attempts to unveil, and to explain on principles of reaſon and common ſenſe; while he laments over the miſery and confuſion, barbarous impiety and folly, which have followed the introduction of Chriſtianity into the world. The reader's pity will alſo be called forth when he obſerves his illiberal and impotent attacks on Chriſtianity; and the contemptuous eſtimation in which he affects to hold the venerable characters of Bacon, Locke, Cudworth, and Johnſon. But the bucklers of modern theology, and modern philoſophy, will eaſily repel the darts of this romantic and vaunting champion.

The treatiſe "De Rythmo Græcorum, in uſum Juventutis Coll. Æn. Naſ. Oxon." contains a ſenſible and learned digeſt of what has been ſaid by former writers on the rythm of the Greeks, illuſtrated by many valuable obſervations of the ingenious author. This work is divided into ſix chapters. The firſt treats of the eſſence and general properties of rythm; the ſecond conſiders rythm as relative to muſic; the third as relative to poetry. The fourth and fifth chapters are on the exiſtence and nature of rythm in proſaic compoſitions; and the ſixth contains a variety of examples, ſelected from Iſocrates and Demoſthenes, to ſhew that ſuch ſort of meaſured periods, among the Greeks, were the reſult of ſtudy and deſign, and not of accident. This point, the principal object of the learned author, he appears to have demonſtrated with conſiderable ſucceſs. In an Appendix he treats of the Greek cæſura. The author of this work is entitled to the praiſe of the learned world, for the philological acumen and perſpicuity which it diſcovers; and for the inſtruction as well as amuſement which he affords his readers.

Mr. Wakefield's "Sylva Critica; ſive in Auctores ſacros profanoſque Commentarius Philologus," is a publication which reflects great honour on the extenſive claſſical knowledge, and critical taſte of the learned author. In this philological commentary Mr. Wakefield blends together ſacred criticiſm and remarks on the profane writers of antiquity; and illuſtrates the meaning of different paſſages in the Old and New Teſtament, by adducing parallel paſſages from the Greek hiſtorians, poets, and fathers. He hath, likewiſe, introduced a variety of conjectural emendations, which, if they ſometimes may be thought bold, from their novelty and diſagreement with commonly received readings, are, nevertheleſs, ſupported with great ingenuity and force of reaſoning. We heartily recommend this inſtructive and intereſting work to the lovers of claſſical learning; and entertain the hope that the author will find leiſure to continue his ſtudies in a line for which he appears to be eminently qualified.

The "New and Literal Tranſlation of Juvenal and Perſius, with copious

copious explanatory Notes, &c, by the rev. Mr. Madan, in two vols." is a work which entitles the author to the thanks of the public, for the immenſe labour and pains which he hath taken, in order to elucidate the meaning of thoſe difficult ſatiriſts. But we are doubtful whether the method which he hath adopted, of literally rendering line for line, and word for word, will be ſucceſsful in making ſchool-boys and young beginners, real and well-grounded ſcholars; even were we to admit the propriety of indulging them with tranſlations of any kind. And we think that it entirely deſtroys that ardour, point, and beauty which are the principal recommendations of his originals. We perfectly agree, however, with the author, in thinking that it will afford deſirable aſſiſtance "to numbers in a more advanced age, who, by being thrown into various ſcenes of life, remote from claſſical improvement, have ſo far fogotten their Latin, as to render theſe elegant and inſtructive remains of antiquity almoſt inacceſſible to their comprehenſion, however deſirous they may be to renew their acquaintance with them." And his copious and valuable notes, in which he hath availed himſelf of the aſſiſtance of various learned commentators, though they do not always carry conviction to our minds, will ſufficiently juſtify us in recommending Mr. Madan's tranſlation.

The "Diſſertation concerning two Odes or Horace, which have been diſcovered in the Palatine Library, at Rome," is intended to recall the attention of claſſical readers to, what appears to the author to have been overlooked, or forgotten, the publication of Mr. Villoiſon at the end of the Addenda in Animadverſionibus ad Iongi Paſtoralia, and to aſſign thoſe Odes their proper arrangement in the works of Horace. We recollect that when M. Pallavicini firſt announced the diſcovery of theſe Odes, the queſtion reſpecting their authenticity occaſioned ſeveral diſcuſſions in the literary world. On this head our editor ſays nothing farther, "than that they are, in conſideration of their reputed author, entitled to the attention of the literati;" and that he leaves them "in their hands, with a certain aſſurance, that each of the Odes will ſtand the teſt, as to pure Latinity and authenticity, of the ſevereſt criticiſm." For the ſatisfaction of our claſſical readers, we have inſerted them in our Poetical department.

In our Hiſtory of the Domeſtic Literature of the Year 1788, we beſtowed our impartial praiſe on the ingenuity and learning diſcovered by an anonymous author, who called in queſtion the authenticity of the Parian Chronicle. We at the ſame time expreſſed our wiſh, that a ſubject which had employed the talents of a writer of unqueſtionable abilities and taſte, would give riſe to liberal and diſpaſſionate inveſtigations on a point which involved in it many interſting particulars connected with general erudition. The praiſe which we beſtowed on that work was impartial, becauſe we ourſelves did not admit the concluſions which the learned author drew from the different poſitions which he laid down. During the preſent year, an article has appeared in the Archæologia, in "Vindication of the Authenticity of the Parian Chronicle, by Rich. Gough, Eſq." in which the author diſplays great learning, and ſolid arguments, which appear to us, on the whole, to outweigh

the objections of his ſenſible and plauſible opponent. On the ſame ſide of the queſtion the controverſy has been undertaken by the rev. John Hewlett. This author examines the conſiderations laid down by our objector, in the order in which he had arranged them. But though he ſtands on that ground which we deem to be moſt tenable, and ſhews that he is not deficient in ingenuity, we do not think him qualified to oppoſe ſo formidable an antagoniſt. In learning, and in candour, he is greatly his inferior.

Mr. Cogan's "Addreſs to the Diſſenters on Claſſical Literature," contains many juſt and ſenſible obſervations on the advantages of claſſical learning, which deſerve the attention of the public in general, as well as the body of people for whom he principally writes. We have, however, heard it ably contended, that he is not perfectly accurate in what he takes for granted as an indiſputable fact, viz, that the diſſenters are peculiarly deficient in claſſical knowledge. And it has been ſuggeſted to us, that he inſiſts too much on the ſuperior advantages which thoſe of the eſtabliſhment enjoy, from ſuch public ſchools as Weſtminſter and Eton, as it ought to be conſidered, that diſſenters are not debarred from drawing their ſtores from the ſame ſources, or from ſchools conducted on ſimilar plans. We do not, by theſe obſervations, in the leaſt condemn that zeal which prompted him to engage his brethren to remove from themſelves a ſuppoſed ſtigma. It is highly to be commended: and the diſſenters are much obliged to him for his well meant advice.

During the preſent year a curious and valuable literary work hath been imported from Calcultta, entitled "Aſiatic Reſearches; or Tranſactions of the Society inſtituted in Bengal, for enquiring into the Hiſtory and Antiquities, the Arts, Sciences, and Literature of Aſia; vol. I." This Society owes its inſtitution to the activity of ſir William Jones, whoſe abilities, and taſte for oriental literature are well known. It was formed on the 15th of Jan. 1784. It's objects are, "Man and Nature; whatever is performed by the one, or produced by the other." And when we conſider the ſcope which the members have for their learned inveſtigations, bounded only by the geographical limits of Aſia, "which has ever been eſteemed the nurſe of ſcience, the inventreſs of delightful and uſeful arts, the ſcene of glorious actions, fertile in the productions of human genius, abounding in natural wonders, and infinitely diverſified in the forms of religion and government, in the laws, manners, cuſtoms, and languages, as well as in the features and complexions of men," we may be juſtified in forming very high expectations of information and entertainment from the eſtabliſhment of ſuch a literary ſociety. The volume before us contains a promiſing ſpecimen of their uſeful and extenſive labours. Beſide ſuch papers as are intended to improve our acquaintance with oriental literature, it conſiſts of various communications which may be claſſed under the heads of mythology, mathematics, philophy, natural hiſtory, manners and cuſtoms of nations, antiquities, manufactures, and polite arts, which, are intereſting, inſtructive, and amuſing. To theſe we may add two excellent and elegant Diſcourſes, by ſir William Jones, the Preſident of the Society; in the firſt of which he lays down the nature

ture of their inſtitution, and of the objects of their enquiries; and in the ſecond, which was delivered on the firſt aniverſary of this eſtabliſhment, he congratulates them on what was already done, and proceeds to mark out the line for their future conduct.

"Deinology; or the Union of Reaſon and Elegance, &c." by Hortentius, is evidently the production of a ſcholar and man of taſte; and has afforded us much pleaſure and inſtruction in the peruſal of it. The author's object is, to recommend the principles of logic and rhetoric to the attention and ſtudy of the gentlemen of the Engliſh bar, whom he conſiders to be greatly inferior, in point of eloquence, to their neighbours the French, and their fellow-labourers, almoſt in the ſame vineyard, the Scotch advocates. With this view he hath ſelected from other writers on this ſubject what he conceived to be their beſt remarks; and hath added ſome uſeful obſervations of his own, in the form of advice to a young barriſter. In the diviſions of this work, and in pointing out in what manner oratory ſhould make uſe of logic, and the uſe that logic, in its turn, may make of rhetoric, he gives evidence of his having been well trained in the ſchool of dialectic philoſophy. He hath alſo illuſtrated the different figures of ſpeech, with judgment and perſpicuity. To this work the author hath added a poſtſcript on the examination of witneſſes; which contains an ingenious attempt to reduce to rules a ſubject of great nicety and ſkill, that merits particular attention from the gentlemen of the bar.

Mr. Pickbourn's "Diſſertation on the Engliſh Verb," is not intended by him to give a complete theory of the verb; but to diſcuſs ſuch queſtions as either have not been perfectly conſidered, or, in his opinion, miſtaken by grammarians. His firſt object is to ſhew the ſimplicity of the verb; as it conſiſts of an infinitive mode, a preſent and preterite tenſe, and two participles. In the next place he treats of the copiouſneſs of the verb, ariſing from its compound tenſes; which he explains as they relate to preſent, paſt, and future time. In this part of his ſubject, particularly in what he ſays relative to preſent and paſt time, the reader will meet with many clear and judicious obſervations, which are deſerving of his notice. The next ſubject which he inveſtigates is the paſſive voice, and the proper exemplification of the preſent, paſt, and future tenſes. After this Mr. Pickbourn comes to, what appears to be one of his principal objects, and is indeed interwoven with the whole of his work, an enquiry into the nature of participles, which he conſiders as no more ſignificant of time than adjectives; and the uſe of the infinitive mode, on which ſubject he ſuggeſts a variety of ſenſible and uſeful remarks. This diſſertation concludes with ſome obſervations on the ſubjunctive mode, a definition of the verb, and conjectures on its origin in language. We ought not, however, to omit obſerving, that through the whole of this performance, the Engliſh verb is, by way of illuſtration, contraſted with the French and Latin verb. We have been thus particular in analyſing the ſubject of Mr. Pickbourn's work, becauſe we conſider it to be an important and valuable addition to our treatiſes on grammar. The author's accuracy and preciſion are highly to be commended. And, if he may be thought to advance ſome novel doctrines, in which he is not countenanced by

our most eminent grammarians, he supports them, nevertheless, with great ingenuity, and with great modesty. He invites "minute enquiry, liberal communication, and candid debate," and is entitled to respect for the diligence and candour which he discovers, when endeavouring to render himself serviceable to the interests of literature.

"The Art of Criticism, as exemplified in Dr. Johnson's Lives of the most eminent English Poets," is a curious and heterogeneous work, which consists of notes on detached parts of the lives of the poets, apparently thrown together at the time of reading them, and presented to the world in the crude incorrect state in which they were written. Sometimes we have been pleased and entertained with our author's boldness of thought, and singularity of remark; but have been more frequently disgusted with the coarseness and vulgarity of his censures. And we have looked, in vain, for that arrangement of matter, and perspicuity of language, which are essential requisites in a professed didactic performance.

The author of "A Caution to Gentlemen who use Sheridan's Dictionary," hath pointed out a number of errors in that work, and in Mr. Sheridan's system of pronunciation, which well deserve the attention of the public, and especially of those who have been educated in the school of that gentleman. He hath also added, for the assistance of foreigners and natives, select rules for pronouncing English with precision and elegance; which are founded in judgment and good taste, and conveyed in simple and perspicuous language.

During the present year there hath appeared a new edition of "The Spectator; with Notes." The principal merit of this edition consists in its restoring to their rightful owners, the different papers in this universally admired collection; and in the anecdotes and explanatory references, which the lapse of more than half a century from their first publication, had rendered necessary to the reader. We could wish, however, that these improvements had not been introduced upon quite so contracted a plan.

"The Trifler, a new periodical Miscellany, by Timothy Touchstone, of St. Peter's College, Westminster," is reputed to be the production of some of the Westminster scholars, who, induced by the praises bestowed on the Microcosm of the Etonians, have been emulous of sharing with them in the honours of authorship. If the essays which compose this volume be, in reality, juvenile productions, they possess considerable merit. They consist, like most collections of this kind, of serious papers, characters, histories, adventures, philological discussions, politics, and poetry, which, to lovers of light reading, may prove instructive and amusing.

"The Busy Body, a Collection of periodical Essays, &c. by Mr. Oulton, in two vols." is intended for readers of the same description; but it possesses very few recommendations to their notice. If we were required to point out what is most deserving of praise in this author, we should refer to his poetical parodies, and imitations, which are tolerably well conducted.

Among the numerous Poetical works to which the year 1789 hath given birth, we meet with "The Poems of Ferdosi, translated from the Persian, by Joseph Champion, Esq. vol I." Ferdosi was a native of the kingdom of Khorasan, and patro-

nized

nized by Mahmoud, the accomplished Sultan of Ghezny, who flourished at the latter end of the tenth and the beginning of the eleventh centuries of the Christian æra. The poems before us were translated by him, at the desire of that Monarch, from the historical annals of Persia, which were originally collected by the command of Yesdegerd, and written in the Peihlouvi language; the same it is supposed, as was spoken in the time of Zoroaster. The history which they contain, when divested of its poetical ornaments, appears from some collateral evidences, to be, in general, authentic; and will be found to elucidate many curious circumstances, and point out many interesting occurrences, in times with which European writers are but little acquainted. So much for the design and merits of the original work, as far as we have been able to collect any account of it, from an Essay on the Life and writings of Ferdosi, prefixed to this volume; and from other authorities. Of Mr. Champion's translation we cannot speak in favourable terms. It is totally destitute of poetical merit; vapid, indistinct, and sometimes ungrammatical; and must convey a very inadequate idea of the original, on which the natives of Persia bestow the highest encomiums.

The poem called "Philotoxi Ardenæ; the Woodmen of Arden; by John Morfitt, Esq. Barrister at Law, accompanied with two Translations, one in blank Verse, another in Rhyme, by Joseph Weston," celebrates the Warwickshire heroes and heroines of the bow and arrow, and was written with the view of promoting "the truly British exercise of archery." The original is far from being an inelegant production; and though intended only for the amusement of a private circle, will not disgrace the classical talents of Mr. Morfitt, when examined by the public eye. The translations, likewise, are not destitute of merit. In his preface, Mr. Weston enters into a laboured defence of the negligences of Dryden; and an attack on the character and versification of Pope. The former object appears to us to be unnecessary; the latter groundless, and conducted in a manner that is too acrimonious and offensive.

The two volumes of "Poems, by Charles James, Esq." were composed "during the interval of sixteen and twenty-seven;" and, of course, will be found very unequal in their merits. The titles of the principal of them, and on which the author hath bestowed the most labour are, the Vanity of Fame; an Epistle from Petrach to Laura; the Year 1800, or, it will be so; and the Suicide. These poems discover the author to be possessed of considerable abilities; and abound in many beautiful and striking thoughts; which are delivered in elegant language, and harmonious versification. It were to be wished, however, that he had not so frequently availed himself of the labours of his predecessors; and particularly of Mr. Pope. With the talents that he evidently possesses, he might have thought more freely for himself, and produced poems not unworthy the public attention.

The volume of "Poems, by the Rev. Joseph Sterling," is distinguished by a number of striking and beautiful passages, which will ensure it a favourable reception from the public. The first and most considerable piece in this collection, which is built on the Squire's Tale, left imperfect by Chaucer, possesses many of the characteristics of an epic poem; and is marked by great

ſtrength of imagination, bold and animated language, and brilliant imagery. To this ſucceed, the Rhapſodiſt, a poem; two Odes from the Icelandic, with a ſenſible Diſſertation and Notes: la Gieruſalemme Soggettita, in the manner of Spencer; tranſlations from the Italian, the Latin of Milton, the Epitaph of Bion from Moſcus, part of the third book of the Argonautics of Apollonius Rhodius; and other poems. Theſe different pieces recommend themſelves by very different merits. They have their beauties, and their blemiſhes; but the former greatly preponderate. From the preface to this volume we are informed that the greater part of theſe poems, were publiſhed in Dublin, ſeveral years ſince.

"Arthur, or the northern Enchantment, a poetical Romance, in ſeven Books, by Richard Hole, LL. B." is one of the moſt ingenious and pleaſing epic poems, which the preſs has, of late years, produced. For his materials the author is indebted, partly to the legendary tales of Arthur, and partly to his own invention. The ſtory, as far as we can relate it, is this: the Weird Siſters, or Northern Parcæ, perceiving through the veil of futurity, that ſhould Arthur obtain in marriage, Inogen, Merlin's daughter, to whom he is contracted, the event would be fatal to the Gothic nations, and their religion; employ all their art to favour the wiſhes of Hengiſt, king of the Saxons, who is alſo in love with her. Their efforts, however, and their malice are continually oppoſed by Merlin's ſupernatural wand; which enables Arthur to triumph over their enchantments, and to ſecure his deſtined bride, as well as the Britiſh throne. In this beautiful and entertaining romance, Mr. Hole diſplays great powers of imagination, much bold and pictureſque deſcription, and a correct poetical taſte. The incidents which he introduces are highly intereſting; and his reflections moral and inſtructive. He hath alſo diſcovered, by his judicious and learned Preface and Notes, that he is a conſiderable proficient in Scandinavian Antiquities.

"The Botanic Garden, Part II. containing the Loves of the Plants, a Poem," is a performance ſingularly novel, entertaining, and inſtructive. The general deſign of it is "to enliſt Imagination under the banner of Science, and to lead her votaries from the looſer analogies, which dreſs out the imagery of poetry, to the ſtricter ones, which form the ratiocination of philoſophy. The particular deſign is to induce the ingenious to cultivate the knowledge of botany; by introducing them to the veſtibule of that delightful ſcience, and recommending to their attention the immortal works of the celebrated Swediſh naturaliſt, Linnæus." The publication of the firſt part of this work which is to treat of the œconomy of vegetables, is deferred to another year, for the purpoſe of repeating ſome experiments. In the part now before us, the ſexual ſyſtem of Linnæus is explained, with the remarkable properties of many particular plants. It was with uncommon pleaſure that we followed the author through the cantos of this agreeable poem, which is rendered exceedingly intereſting by lively deſcriptions, beautiful alluſions both to claſſic fable, and to modern perſons, manners and inventions, and a great variety of collateral, poetical ornaments. The author likewiſe, hath diſcovered his learning, judgment, and taſte, in the notes which are ſubjoined to this poem;

poem; and in different profe interludes which he hath introduced between the cantos.

"The Day of Pentecoft, or Man Reftored; a Poem in Twelve Books, by W. Gilbank, M. A." is defigned "to give a clear and comprehenfive view of the theory of our moft holy religion, as it is fupported by a long chain of extraordinary facts, and ftriking interpofitions of Providence recorded in the facred hiftory; and to exhibit that repreſentation in a form and dreſs likely to attract the notice of fuch as cannot eafily be prevailed upon to become acquainted with it in a more fyftematic garb." The piety of this author, and his intimate acquaintance with the fcriptures, are difcernible in every part of this poem. But he hath evidently undertaken a moft arduous task, to which his abilities are by no means equal. His plan is devoid of perfpicuity; and in conducting it, notwithftanding the fublimity of his fubject, he offers little to the reader that is intereſting or pleaſing.

The "Eſſay on Senſibility, a Poem, in Six Parts," was written in order to difcuſs the queſtion, "Whether fenſibility or the want of it, is, upon the whole, moft productive of comfort and happineſs in the courſe of life." The firſt part is employed in conſidering the different pleaſures of fenſibility; the ſecond in contemplating its pains reſulting from thoſe general evils, whether natural or moral, to which mankind are expoſed; the third, in ſurveying the different ſpecies of diſguſt produced by the view of private characters; the fourth in enumerating the pangs which accompany the dearer and domeſtic relations; the fifth conſiders the nature and effects of apathy; the ſixth examines into the cauſes, and points out the remedies, of the pains of ſenſibility, and concludes with eſtabliſhing in its favour, the ballance of happineſs. The author of this poem is, unqueſtionably, a ſenſible writer; and has diſcovered conſiderable ſkill in drawing characters. Many of his lines alſo, are forcible, and well finiſhed. But he hath extended his ſubject to an unneceſſary and tedious length; and betrayed a blameable negligence in ſuffering it to appear before the public diſfigured by a number of blemiſhes, with reſpect to language, verſification, and ſenſe, which a careful reviſion would have led him to correct.

Mr. Bowles's "Verſes to John Howard, F. A. S. on his State of Priſons and Lazarettos," contain a pleaſing and elegant addreſs to that worthy and reſpectable man, which does credit to the poetical talents of the author, and to the genuine ſentiments of humanity by which he appears to be influenced. At the end of this addreſs Mr. Bowles hath added ſome lines on the death of Mr. Headley, the ingenious author of "Select Beauties of Ancient Engliſh Poetry," of which we gave a particular account in our Hiſtory of the Literature of the year 1787.

"The Village Curate" is the production of a ſenſible and engaging writer, who, in relating an account of the curate's mode of living, manners, and purſuits, during the courſe of a year, takes the opportunity of introducing a number of deſcriptions, characters, and reflections, which are beautiful, impreſſive, and original. This poem, however, is not ſo finiſhed and correct as the author's abilities might have rendered it. Of this he ſeems thoroughly ſenſible, and gaily diſclaims all pretenſions to fame from "this rude ſong," while he

ſeems to promiſe ſome future performance more worthy of the attention of the public. No one who has read the Village Curate, will think him unqualified for that taſk.

The author of "A Collection of Sixty Sonnets," hath choſen a variety of intereſting ſubjects, on which he hath delivered a number of pleaſing and beautiful thoughts, clothed in ſimple and elegant language. But though we peruſed ſeveral of them with much pleaſure, we became tired and diſguſted, by running over, again and again, the ſame ſpecies of verſification, without any variety or change to relieve our attention.

The "Sonnets, and Miſcellaneous Poems, by the late Thomas Ruſſel, Fellow of New College, Oxford," are evidently the productions of a man of genius and taſte, who appears to have been well verſed in claſſical knowledge, and intimately acquainted with beſt French, Italian, Spaniſh, and Portugueſe authors. From the merit which theſe ſpecimens diſcover, we are led to regret that ſuch promiſing abilities ſhould have been loſt to the world, before the author had completed his twenty-ſixth year.

During the preſent year Mr. Polwhele hath completed his "Engliſh Orator," by publiſhing the Fourth Book of that didactic poem. The ſubject of this book is, the eloquence of the pulpit, which he conſiders in an extenſive point of view, and diſcuſſes with conſiderable addreſs. His obſervations reſpecting the previous qualifications of preachers, the choice of ſubjects for ſermons, the neceſſity of acquainting themſelves with the character of their hearers, and adapting their diſcourſes to their ſituations and underſtandings, the propriety of addreſſing the paſſions, and the manner in which this may be done with the greateſt advantage, and the importance of an unblemiſhed and reſpectable character, are judicious and uſeful, and highly deſerving of the attention of the clergy. Nor do the author's poetical talents appear in a leſs reſpectable light than in the former books.

Mr. Birch alſo, hath publiſhed the ſecond part of "The Abbey of Ambreſbury." When we gave an account of the firſt part of this poem, we were liberal in commendation of our author's poetical abilities; and expreſſed, in warm terms, the ſatisfaction which we had received from attending to his beautiful and pathetic ſtory. The continuation now before us, is intereſting and affecting, and will afford pleaſure to moſt readers. But, notwithſtanding its merit, we do not think it equal to the firſt part. The ſtory does not appear to be told ſo well: neither does it exhibit equal proofs of accuracy and correctneſs.

"Bell's Claſſical Arrangement of Fugitive Poetry," is a moſt elegant production, which deſerves the encouragement and ſupport of all true lovers of the Engliſh Muſe. The deſign of it is, to give to the public a ſelection of detached pieces of Engliſh poetry, of acknowledged merit, formerly printed ſeparately, or in prior collections; and here republiſhed under a claſſical arrangement. Of this work eight volumes have already appeared. From the ſpecimen which theſe afford us of the editor's taſte and judgment, in the choice of his ſubjects and the merit of the pieces which he has admitted into his collection, we can venture to pronounce that the whole work, which is intended to conſiſt of about twenty volumes, will be

worthy of admiſſion into the beſt libraries. To each of theſe volumes are added, by way of appendix, notes, anecdotes, and remarks, critical and explanatory, which will be highly acceptable to moſt readers.

We have already extended our Hiſtory of Domeſtic Literature ſo far, that we are obliged to content ourſelves with mentioning only the titles of ſome of the other poetical works which have appeared during the preſent year. To this liſt the prolific Muſe of Peter Pindar hath contributed "A Poetical Epiſtle to a falling Miniſter, &c." the beſt and moſt pleaſing parts of which are the dialogues between Prudence and Peter; "Subjects for Painters," in which, with his uſual ſucceſs, he laughs at, or teizes the Royal Academicians; and "Expoſtulatory Odes to a Great Duke, and a Little Lord," which is far from being the leaſt pointed of his ſatirical productions. In addition to theſe there have appeared two volumes of "Satirical Poems, by Anthony Paſquin, Eſq." "The Brunoniad, a Poem, in ſix Cantos;" "A Congratulatory Epiſtle to his Grace the Duke of Portland, on His Majeſty's Recovery;" "Peter Pindar's Penitence, a Miſcellaneous and Burleſque Poem, by Pindaromaſtix;" "The Rout, or a Sketch of Modern Life;" "The Female Parliament, by Theophilus Swift, Eſq." "Poems on Various Subjects, by Mrs. Rowſon;" "The Deluge, by the rev. John Roberts, M. A.;" "Redemption, a Poem, by Joſeph Swain;" "Suicide, a Poem, by Mary Dawes Blackett;" "Matilda, in ſeven Cantos, by Mr. Beſt;" "The Guinea Voyage, in three books, by James Field Stanfield;" "Sable Victims, a Barbadoes Narration, &c. by F. Nicholls;" "Sorrows of Slavery, &c. by the rev. J. Jamieſon, A. M. F. A. S. S.;" "Gallic Liberty, a Poem, occaſioned by the Revolution in France;" "Thoughts on the Seaſons, &c. principally in the Scottiſh Dialect, by David Davidſon;" "The Harp, a Legendary Tale;" "Conway Caſtle, by James White, Eſq." "Leith Hill;" "Crouch Hill;" "The Grove of Fancy;" "An Epiſtle in Verſe, written from Somerſetſhire, to a Gentleman in Scotland; and "A Collection of Poems, chiefly paſtoral and elegiac, by J. Rannie."

The Dramatic Liſt of the year 1789, contains the following Tragedies: "Mary Queen of Scots, by the Hon. John St. John," which was the only one produced on the ſtage;" "Panthea, or the Captive Bride, &c. founded on a Story in Xenophon, by the rev. Thomas Maurice, A. M. late of Univerſity College, Oxford;" "Alfred, an Hiſtorical Tragedy, &c. by E. Rhodes;" and "Chaubert, or the Miſanthrope, by J. C. Villiers, Eſq." which is founded on circumſtances, related in the Obſerver, by Mr. Cumberland. The Comedies were, "The Impoſtors, by Richard Cumberland, Eſq." "Falſe Appearances, altered from the French, by the right hon. Gen. Conway;" "The Married Man, by Mrs. Inchbald;" "The Sword of Peace; or, a Voyage of Love;" and "The Engliſh Tavern at Berlin, in three acts." The Muſical Pieces, Interludes, and Farces were, "The Iſland of Marguerite;" "The Family Party;" "Half an Hour after Supper;" "As it Should Be;" and "The Man of Enterprize, by C. Shillito."

Under our ſhort head of miſcellaneous productions, we ſhall, in the firſt place, announce the publication of the ſecond volume of Mr. Twiſs's work, ſtyled "Cheſs."

The object of the author, as we explained it when we gave an account of his first volume, is to present to his readers a compilation of all the anecdotes and quotations that could be found relative to the game of Chess; with an account of all the chess books that could be procured. We have nothing more to add with respect to the general character of this work, than that the author hath been indefatigable in the attention and patience which he hath bestowed on the continuation before us; and that chess-players, and his readers in general, will readily acknowledge the additional obligations which he hath conferred upon them, by the fresh sources which he hath opened, of information and entertainment.

The name of Lavater, and the character of his curious and singular "Essays on Physiognomy", are already sufficiently known to our readers. We have it now in our power to announce to them, the first complete edition of that work in English, "translated by Thomas Holcroft; illustrated by Three Hundred and Sixty Engravings, in 3 vols. 8vo." The translation of a work on a subject so novel, and composed in the self-created style of the author, was a peculiarly bold and laborious task. Mr. Holcroft, however, is entitled to considerable merit, for the fidelity and spirit with which he hath, in general, rendered the meaning of his original. The edition which he has used, is that of Mr. Ambrosser, the friend of Mr. Lavater, who had judiciously divested it of many unnecessary luxuriances, with the knowledge, and apparently with the approbation, of the author. Without entering upon an enquiry into the solidity of the author's principles, we may observe, that the judicious and serious reader, will find much to admire, and much to approve, in the sensible and curious remarks, and the benevolent and pious reflections which occur in these volumes. But, independently of the merits of the work as a scientific performance, the numerous, rich and beautiful plates with which it is decorated, give it a high degree of value and importance. These consist of shades, unshaded heads, and finished heads and figures; and are executed with great elegance and accuracy.

The volume of "Anecdotes, &c. Ancient and Modern, with Observations, by James Petit Andrews, F. A. S.", will be found an entertaining, and occasionally, an instructive companion. A retirement for some years, with the uninterrupted perusal of a library composed chiefly of such volumes as are not in the way of every student, supplied the editor with a very considerable stock of extracts and remarks. These he hath arranged under proper heads; connected them with observations of his own; and offered them to the public, with hopes of their being received with candour and good humour. It would be ungrateful to give this work a different reception. Readers of all descriptions may derive amusement from it. And what is much to the credit of the compiler, and very unusual in productions of this kind, nothing will be found in it, that can have an unfavourable influence on the morals or the religion of the young and inexperienced, or give offence to the most delicate ear.

The collection of "Anecdotes, Bon Mots, and characteristic Traits, of the greatest Princes, Politicians, Philosophers, &c. by the rev. John Adams," appears, likewise, to have been formed with a careful attention

tion to exclude from it every thing unfavourable to morality and decency, and will supply young readers with a fund of innocent amuſement and inſtruction.

The "Eſſay on Shooting &c. with Inſtructions for attaining the Art, the Method of training Pointers, &c. with ſummary Obſervations on the various Subjects of the Sport," is a work which will be peculiarly acceptable to ſportſmen; and which we may venture to recommend, as the moſt uſeful practical treatiſe that we have yet ſeen on the ſubject. For the rules which are contained in this eſſay, as well as the collateral information with which it abounds, the author acknowledges himſelf to be conſiderably indebted to a French publication, entitled "La Chaſſe au Fuſil." He hath, likewiſe, added a number of ſenſible and juſt obſervations of his own, which appear to be the reſult of perſonal experience.

The volume of "Miſcellaneous Pieces, in Proſe and Verſe, by the rev. Dr. Jonathan Swift, &c. not inſerted in Mr. Sheridan's Edition of the Dean's works," depends for its authenticity ſolely on the internal evidence of the papers which it contains. And, with reſpect to many of them, this will be ſufficient for the ſatisfaction of thoſe who are converſant with Dr. Swift's works. A great part of this volume conſiſts of letters from the Dr. to his friends; which may aſſiſt us in forming a more comprehenſive judgment of that extraordinary character. The remaining part is compoſed of miſcellaneous pieces; ſome of which might have been ſuffered to remain in obſcurity, without injury to the reputation and fame of the ſuppoſed author.

The volume of "Literary Relics; containing original Letters from King Charles II. James II. the Queen of Bohemia, Swift, Berkeley, Addiſon, Steel, Congreve, &c. by George-Monk Berkeley, Eſq. LL. B in the Univerſity of Dublin," contains a number of papers that are intereſting and entertaining. Thoſe of the late excellent and learned Biſhop of Cloyne, will be particularly acceptable. The reader will alſo receive with pleaſure, an ingenious and animated defence of Dr. Swift, by the editor.

The publication of the "Letters of the late Thomas Rundle, LL. D. Lord Biſhop of Derry, in Ireland, &c. by James Dallaway, M. A. of Trinity College, Oxford, in two volumes," will prove an acceptable circumſtance to the literary world. That reſpectable and worthy prelate, though not diſtinguiſhed as an author, was moſt intimately connected with the moſt eminent political and literary men of his period; by whom he was highly reſpected. Theſe letters contain many literary remarks, which are curious and important, and ſhew him to have been a man of great taſte, learning, and virtue. They alſo offer ſuch evidences of his zealous and rational attachment to the cauſe of liberty and free enquiry, as reflect the higheſt honour on his memory, and will be peruſed with pleaſure and improvement. Our readers will naturally recollect the character given of this Biſhop, by Mr. Pope, that "Rundle had a heart:" and we can aſſure them, that the peruſal of theſe volumes, will abundantly confirm the juſtice of that encomium.

The "Thoughts in the form of Maxims, addreſſed to young Ladies, on their firſt Eſtabliſhment in the World, by the Counteſs Dowager of Carliſle," do equal honour to the writer's diſcernment and goodneſs of heart. This little work is intended, chiefly,

chiefly, for the uſe of young ladies of fortune, who have had the advantage of a good education, and is deſigned to guard them againſt "ſuch minute follies and blemiſhes, on their firſt entrance on the great and critical world, as are the leſs avoidable, as their conſequences do not ſtrike at firſt." And it will be found to convey much uſeful inſtruction, relative to manners, and propriety of behaviour.

Mr. Bennet's "Letters to a young Lady, on a Variety of intereſting and uſeful Subjects, &c. in two vols." may be conſidered as a continuation of a former work, by the ſame author, entitled "Strictures on Female Education," of which we gave an account in our Regiſter for the year 1787. Mr. Bennet's inſtructions are comprehended under the following heads: I. Religious knowledge; with a liſt of proper writers. II. Polite knowledge, as it relates to the belles lettres in general. III. Accompliſhments, as diſplayed in muſic, dancing, dreſs, politeneſs, &c. IV. Prudential conduct and maxims, with reſpect to amuſement, love, courtſhip, marriage, &c. We have already beſtowed a due ſhare of praiſe on this author, for his ſenſible and friendly endeavours to contribute to the improvement of the female ſex. In the volumes before us, he is engaged in the ſame commendable employment. And, notwithſtanding that they contain nothing new, or uncommonly ſtriking, and may be thought to have been rendered unneceſſary by the elegant productions of Dr. Gregory, Dr. Fordyce, and Mrs. Chapone, they are written with that fervour, and goodneſs of intention, that entitle them to a favourable reception; and we can ſafely recommend them as "calculated to improve the heart, to form the manners, and enlighten the underſtanding."

Mr. Williams's "Lectures on Education; read to a Society for promoting reaſonable and humane Improvement in the Diſcipline and Inſtruction of Youth, in three vols." contain a number of ingenious and uſeful remarks on the objects of attention in education, with an account of a new plan which he hath adopted for educating youth, by means of actual exerciſes, inſtead of formal precepts; which are accompanied by ſingular and intereſting narratives of different experiments, made by him on the principles which he recommends, and their reſults. Notwithſtanding that the author hath ſucceſsfully pointed out the defects which attend the modes of diſcipline and inſtruction commonly purſued, and offered a variety of juſt and original obſervations, which merit the attention of the public, we cannot ſay that we have been able to form a perfect idea of the practical part of his ſcheme. Some parts of it appear to us to be too refined and viſionary. We think alſo, that many of the ſentiments which he introduces on the ſubject of religious principles, are highly exceptionable. No ſyſtem of education, in our opinion, can be ſolid or valuable, which doth not direct its firſt attention to eſtabliſh in the minds of young perſons clear and rational principles of piety. Theſe principles are the beſt foundation on which the beautiful and uſeful ſuperſtructure of moral virtue can be erected.

The "Tracts by Warburton, and a Warburtonian &c." conſiſt of miſcellaneous tranſlations, in proſe and verſe, and a critical and philoſophical enquiry into the cauſes of prodigies and miracles, omitted in the laſt ſplendid edition of the biſhop's

ſhop's works; and a diſſertation on the delicacy of friendſhip, addreſſed to Dr. Jortin, together with a letter to Dr. Thomas Leland, in ſupport of Dr. Warburton's idea of an inſpired language, as delivered in his Doctrine of Grace, which have been generally aſcribed to a learned prelate, who was formerly the friend of Warburton, and ſuperintended the late edition of his works. The object of this publication is, partly, to recall to public notice and attention ſuch ingenious and philoſophical eſſays of Warburton, of which a ſuppreſſion hath been very improperly attempted; and, partly to vindicate the characters of Jortin and Leland from the unprovoked and virulent attacks of the Warburtonian. This deſign takes up the dedication addreſſed by the editor to a learned critic; a preface; & Teſtimonia Auctorum. It is not eaſy to ſpeak too highly of the learning, philoſophy, and claſſical taſte, which are diſcovered by the editor of theſe Tracts. His defences of Jortin and Leland, are maſterly and complete; his criticiſms diſplay uncommon powers of judgment and diſcrimination; and his ſtyle is diſtinguiſhed by a boldneſs of imagery, an energy and elegance of diction, which muſt extort the praiſe of all deſcriptions of readers, even of thoſe who may not admire the ſpirit by which he appears to be actuated.

The "Facts relating to the rev. Dr. White's Bampton Lecture, by R. B. Gabriel, D. D." have been laid before the public in vindication of the character of the editor, who was accuſed of calumniating Dr. White, by aſſerting, that he was under particular obligations to the late Mr. Badcock, for aſſiſtance in the compoſition of his ſermons, preached at the Bampton Lecture. Notwithſtanding that theſe facts do, in a conſiderable degree ſubſtantiate Dr. Gabriel's aſſertion, they are far from warranting the concluſion that the chief merit of that celebrated work is not to be aſcribed to the learned profeſſor. What they principally tend to prove is, that Dr. White, whoſe genius and literature are unqueſtionable, is highly to be blamed for that indolence of diſpoſition which permitted him to accept of the ſervices of Mr. Badcock; and for the indiſcretion with which he entruſted his reputation to the care of a man, who, to ſpeak in the mildeſt terms of his conduct, had the weakneſs to gratify the illiberal and malignant with an opportunity of defaming his employer, by diſcloſing, or making a boaſt of the aſſiſtance which he had afforded him, and for which he had received an ample pecuniary recompence.

In our hiſtory of the Foreign Literature of the year 1788, we expatiated, as far as our limits would permit, on the character and merits of "The Poſthumous Works of Frederick II. King of Pruſſia, in fifteen vols. publiſhed at Berlin." We have now the ſatisfaction of informing the Engliſh reader, that the opportunity is afforded him of becoming acquainted with thoſe intereſting and entertaining volumes, by the progreſſive tranſlation of Mr. Holcroft. We have only ſeen two volumes of this tranſlation, containing Frederick's Hiſtory of his own Period, to the concluſion of the ſeven year's war, which we can venture to recommend for the fidelity and correctneſs with which the original appears to be rendered.

Among the numerous Novels and Romances of the year, the public approbation has been particularly beſtowed on "Zeleuco, or various Views of Human Nature, taken from Life

Life and Manners, foreign and domeſtic, in two vols." "Mammuth, or Human Nature diſplayed on a grand Scale &c. by the Man in the Moon, in two volumes;" "Ethelinde, or the Recluſe of the Lake, by Charlotte Smith, in five volumes;" "The Son of Ethelwolf, an hiſtorical Tale, in two volumes, by Miſs Fuller;" "Earl Strongbow, in two volumes;" "Agnes de Courcy, a domeſtic Tale, by Mrs. Bennet, in four volumes;" and "Argus, or the Houſe Dog, at Eadlip; Memoirs in a Family Correſpondence, in three vols."

In addition to theſe, the authors of the following publications have been candidates for the notice of the public, in the ſame line of writing: "Honoria Somerville;" "The young Widow, or Hiſtory of Cornelia Sedley;" "Eliza Beaumont, and Harriet Oſborne, by Indiana Brooks;" "Mount Pelham;" "The hiſtory of Sir Charles Bentinck, Baronet, and Louiſa Cavendiſh; "The Child of Woe, by Mrs. Norman;" "The Vicar of Lanſdowne, by Maria Regina Dalton;" "The predeſtined Wife; or, the Force of Prejudice;" "The Belle Widows;" "Radzivil;" "The Hermit of Snowden; "Juliet, or the Cottager;" "Lord Walford;" "The Priory of St. Bernard, an old Engliſh Tale;" "Paul and Mary, an Indian Story;" "Caliſta, by Mr. Johnſon;" "Roſenberg, a Legendary Tale;" and "The Life of Lazarillo de Tormes."

With this liſt we ſhall cloſe our hiſtory of the Domeſtic Literature of the year 1789.

FOREIGN

FOREIGN LITERATURE

Of the Year 1789.

IN giving our general view of Foreign Literature, we are obliged to confine ourſelves within ſtill narrower limits than while deſcribing the progreſſive efforts of our own countrymen, in the different branches of knowledge. And our materials, even for the ſhort and imperfect abſtract which we profeſs to lay before our readers, will be found exceedingly ſcanty, while paſſing over the northern nations of Ruſſia, Sweden and Denmark.—To begin with the Ruſſian empire: the only theological work concerning which we have had any information, was publiſhed at Riga. This work contains "The Goſpel of Mark, in Greek and Latin, from MSS. never before examined, chiefly at Moſcow, by Chriſtian F. Matthaus; to which are added ſome Specimens." From M. Matthaus the learned world hath already received the Goſpel of Matthew, the Epiſtles to the Theſſalonians, Galatians, Epheſians, Philippians, Hebrews, Coloſſians, and Timothy, and the Apocalypſe, which, as well as the volume before us, reflect great honour on his zealous and arduous labours in the cauſe of ſacred literature. With the preſent volume are given, ſome uſeful remarks on MSS. and on the method of determining their dates; to which the author hath added a promiſe of a complete catalogue of the MSS. at Moſcow. When it is conſidered that this country afforded a friendly aſſylum, to the profeſſors of the Greek church, ſubſequently to the deſtruction of the eaſtern empire, we may reaſonably expect very conſiderable advantages from the fulfilment of M. Matthaus' promiſe. —At the ſame place have appeared "Eſſays on the Hiſtory of Ruſſia, tranſlated from the Ruſſian, by C. G. Arndt, vol. I." This work originally appeared in the new Peterſburgh Journal for the year 1783. It's object is, to give the Ruſſian youth a better knowledge of the hiſtory of their own country than can be obtained from the writings of foreigners, whoſe ſources of knowledge muſt be imperfect, and who cannot be ſuppoſed entirely free from the influence of prejudices. Beſide an abſtract of the reigns of the ſucceſſive ſovereigns of Ruſſia, and tables of their genealogies, this work contains a chronological view of their contemporaries, in and out of Europe.—At Peterſburgh a valuable addition hath been made to Geographical Science, by the publication of a map of the diſcoveries made by the Ruſſians, as well as captain Cook, in the South Seas. Beſide the diſcoveries of our Britiſh navigator, this map contains a number of iſlands between Aſia and America, diſcovered by captain Behring in his voyages to the North in 1728, and to the Eaſt in 1741; thoſe

thoſe of Tſchiritrow to the Eaſt in 1741; of captain Crinizin to the Eaſt in 1768; of captain Spanberg to the South in 1738; of lieutenant Walton to the South in 1738; of M. Schelling to the South in 1741; and of M. Petouſchkow to the South in 1777.—At Peterſburgh there hath alſo been publiſhed the ſecond part of the firſt volume of M. Pallas's "Flora Roſſica." This ſecond part is continued on the ſame admirable and ſplendid plan with the former labours of that indefatigable and intelligent naturaliſt. It completes the liſt of the trees and ſhrubs known as yet in the Ruſſian empire, and contains ſome very ſuperb figures of the rareſt of them. The plates, which amount to an hundred, are executed with the utmoſt accuracy and beauty. The farther this work proceeds, the greater is our conviction of its importance and utility; and the greater is our admiration of its illuſtrious patroneſs, who, amid the numerous objects that claim her anxious attention, hath inclination and ſpirit to protect, with unabated munificence, ſuch a valuable ſcientific work.

In Sweden, the firſt publications that claim our attention are of an hiſtorical nature. Of this kind there hath been publiſhed at Stockholm, a work, entitled, "Pieces illuſtrative of the Wars in Sweden, in two volumes." Theſe pieces, which amount to twenty-eight in number, contain a variety of curious and important original papers, which will be particularly acceptable to the ſtudent in Swediſh hiſtory. And readers of general hiſtory will meet with much intereſting information in them; particularly in ſuch as relate to the eventful period of Guſtavus Adolphus.—Of the ſame deſcription are the "Hiſtorical Memoirs of the Royal Regiment of Sundermania, in two volumes," which will be found to contain much information relative to the hiſtory of that extraordinary prince, on whom this regiment attended during all his campaigns.—The "Naval Memoirs, of Sweden, by C. Guſt. Tornquiſt, Lieutenant in the Royal Navy, Knight of the Order of Merit in France, &c. in two volumes," contain a particular and accurate account of the naval tranſactions of that kingdom, from the regency of Torkel Knutſon in 1298, to the peace of 1720. As this author appears to have had acceſs to the moſt authentic documents, his labours cannot but prove acceptable to the public. And his countrymen will conſider ſuch a publication to be peculiarly well timed, as a recital of the heroic deeds of their anceſtors may ſtimulate their preſent fleets to rival their moſt arduous and honourable exertions.—At Stockholm there have alſo been publiſhed, in ſeparate pieces, "Brief Medallic Hiſtories," of Guſtavus Adolphus, and his Queen; of Queen Chriſtina; of Charles Guſtavus, and his Queen; of Charles XI. of Charles XII. and of Frederick, and his Queen; written by the late celebrated C. Reinhold Berch, Knight of the Order of the Polar Star; which will be particularly valuable to medalliſts.—The "New Tranſactions of the Royal Swediſh Academy, for the Year 1787," contain many excellent papers in pure mathematics, chemiſtry, natural hiſtory, and medicine. The moſt important and valuable of theſe may be referred to the departments of natural hiſtory and medicine. Among other contributors to this volume, we find the names of M. Morveau, M. Olaus Swartz, M. Moller, M. Andrew Wahlin, M. Zacharias Nordmark

mark, M. Thunberg, M. Nichol Swederus, M. Arvid Faxe, M. A. H. Florman, professor in the university of Lunden, and M. Afzelius, botanical lecturer at Upsal.—At Stockholm, Sven Rinman, knight of the royal order of Vasa, &c. has published a valuable "Mineralogical Dictionary, in two volumes quarto," illustrated by thirty-four copper-plates. This copious and extensive work contains not only all the technical terms of the miner, but an account of all known mineral productions, the manner of working them, and the instruments necessary to be employed. Proceeding, as this work does, from a school in which the science of mining is cultivated with the greatest success, it will be found an important and useful assistant to the mineralogists of our own country, to whose attention we recommend it.—The "New Genera and Species of Plants, or a Prodromus of a Description of Vegetables, chiefly hitherto unknown, which were collected in the West Indies in the Year 1783—1787, by Olof Swartz, M.D." published at Stockholm and Upsal, is a work which the botanical world will receive with peculiar pleasure. The author, in the course of his travels through the different Antilles and Jamaica, discovered no less than sixty-one new genera, and near eight hundred and fifty new species of plants. In this Prodromus he gives their specific characters, with as much conciseness as possible, accompanied with quotations from other authors, a description of the places where the plants grow, and their duration. He hath, likewise, compared his collection with that of sir Joseph Banks, from which it is enriched with several West India plants.—The "Miscellany of Swedish Literature," translated into French, by M. Agander, contains a specimen of the progress made by some of the members of the Swedish Academy of Sciences, in ornamental literature. It consists of orations and odes, composed on particular occasions, which create favourable impressions of the genius and taste of these authors. The principal persons who have contributed to this collection are, M. de Rosenstein, secretary to the Academy, M. le Comte J. G. Oxenstierna, Messrs. Paykul, Stöberg, Cleyberg, Kellgren, Thorild, Leopold, and Elers.

In turning our attention to the Literature of Denmark, the first publication which calls for our notice is, a treatise "on the Sahidic Version of the New Testament, with Fragments of Paul's Epistles to Timothy, from the Sahidic Manuscript in the Borgian Museum at Velletri; by Frederick Munster." This very ancient and important version of the New Testament, agrees principally with the Cambridge and Vatican versions. It contains also several new lections, which are not to be met with any where else. The fragments, therefore, which M. Munster hath given in this volume, will be favourably received by Biblical scholars. They will also hear with pleasure, that the same editor intends to publish the Book of Job, and a considerable part of Proverbs, in the Sahidic version, and the Book of Daniel in the Memphitic.—At Copenhagen, M. J. L. Gosch, has published a "Sketch of a Plan for a Complete System of the General Knowledge necessary to a Statesman, illustrated with Examinations into the First Principles of various important Political Objects, &c. &c." Ths sketch shews that the author has read much, and is possessed

poſſeſſed of an acute and vigorous mind. And though we doubt not but that his riper judgment will ſuggeſt to him a variety of improvements in his undertaking, we think that from the great ſenſe and ingenuity which he diſcovers, his work deſerves to be claſſed in the number of valuable publications on the ſubject of Political Œconony.—In the ſame place a variety of pamphlets have been publiſhed on the ſubject of "Banks," occaſioned by the eſtabliſhment of a new bank at Altona, the ableſt advocate for which is M. Zoega, whoſe principles have been warmly attacked by a number of anonymous authors.—The "Account of Greenland, from a Journal kept from the Year 1721, to 1788, by Paul Egede," contains a variety of intereſting particulars concerning the different colonies ſent from Denmark to Greenland, the progreſs of the miſſionaries in promoting the converſion of the inhabitants, the products of the country, and its moral and political importance, which will amply recompence the reader for the time and attention which he may beſtow upon it. It may alſo be recommended as a proper ſupplement to the well-known publications of Cranz, and Hans Egede, the father of the preſent author.—The "Chemical Diſſertation on Antimonial Medicines, by J. Moeller, M. D." is employed in pointing out the general properties of antimony, and deſcribing its various preparations. In the courſe of this diſſertation the author alſo takes notice of ſeveral waters which contain this mineral.—We have alſo met a with valuable and uſeful work, publiſhed at Copenhagen, entitled, "Extracts from the Journal of the Royal Hoſpital of Frederic, at Copenhagen, by Frederic Lewis Bang, Profeſſor of Medicine, and Firſt Phyſician to the ſaid Hoſpital, in two volumes." But for a particular account of theſe volumes, as well as of other medical treatiſes publiſhed on the continent, we muſt obſerve our eſtabliſhed rule of referring our readers to Dr. Simmons's Medical Journal.—The laſt work which we have to announce in our ſhort and imperfect ſketch of the Literature of Denmark is, a "Daniſh and Latin Dictionary, by J. Baden, Profeſſor of Eloquence at Copenhagen." The former part of this work containing the Latin and Daniſh part, in two volumes, was publiſhed in the year 1786. From the account of the whole work, as given by foreign journaliſts, it appears to be executed with great care and accuracy; and will prove a valuable acquiſition to thoſe who, underſtanding the Latin, are deſirous of becoming maſters of the Daniſh language.

The firſt place in our account of the Literature of the United Provinces we muſt aſſign to the ninth volume of "Prize Diſſertations relative to natural and revealed Religion, publiſhed by Teyler's Theological Society at Haarlem." The object of the Diſſertations in this volume is, to give a comparative view of the civil legiſlation of Lycurgus, Solon, and Moſes, in order to demonſtrate the ſuperiority of the latter. This ſubject has been treated with the greateſt ſucceſs by M. Hieronymus Van Alphen, penſionary of Leyden, who obtained the gold medal. His diſſertation is divided into three chapters. The two firſt are devoted to Lycurgus and Solon, and contain particulars concerning their lives; the peculiar circumſtances of their reſpective countries; and the laws which they eſtabliſhed relating to the conſtitution of government, to national education,

education, to police, to crimes and punishments, and to military discipline. In the third chapter the author takes a survey of the laws of Moses, which he introduces by an enquiry into the great ends for which civil society is instituted. These constitute the standard by which he estimates the laws of Moses, and compares them with those of Lycurgus and Solon. In every part of this dissertation M. Van Alphen shews himself to be well acquainted with ancient literature, as well as with the best modern authors who have written on the subject. We may, perhaps, think that his manner is sometimes too diffuse and declamatory. But we mean not by this remark to detract from his real, as well as comparative merit, which justly entitled him to the distinction conferred by the directors of the society. The second dissertation in this volume, on the same subject, is by an anonymous writer; and the third by the rev. Hendrick Van Voorst, minister of the Baptist congregation at Oostzaandam, with whose name and abilities our readers are not unacquainted. Both these dissertations possess considerable merit; and will be found satisfactorily to answer the objections of those who, either from not having studied the subject, or from a prejudice against revelation, are willing to degrade the legislative character of Moses, by greatly exaggerating the comparative merits of other lawgivers, and insisting on the superior advantages of their institutions to promote the grand purposes of civil society.—In the same country, though the title page does not inform us in what place it was printed, there has appeared a treatise containing "Remarks on the Prize Dissertations published against Dr. Priestley, by Paul Samosatanus." The Prize Dissertations on which this author animadverts, were called forth by the zeal of some of the orthodox clergy, who, having tried in vain to suppress translations of Dr. Priestley's works, by prosecuting and fining the publishers and printers, formed themselves into a society to encourage such hardy champions as should enter the lists against that arch-heretic. Judging from the specimens of their arguments and spirit, inserted in the treatise before us, we cannot think that the cause of orthodoxy will derive much support or honour from their labours. The author of these Remarks, beside exposing the contemptible dullness, and absurd virulence by which the dissertations are chiefly distinguished, enters into a learned enquiry into the opinions of the early fathers of the church; whom he appears to have studied with the most judicious and impartial attention. The result of his enquiry is a conviction that the opinions generally held in the first ages of Christianity concerning the person of Christ, were nearly the same with those afterwards maintained by Arius and his followers. The author's own opinions, however, appear to approach more nearly to those of Dr. Priestley.—At Utrecht hath been published a volume of "Sermons preached at Batavia, on the Prayer-days appointed to be observed during the late War between Britain and Holland, by Jacob Casper Metzlar, &c." These Sermons, which are twelve in number, were not originally intended for publication; but the author, being obliged suddenly to depart from Batavia without taking a formal leave of his flock, was induced to send them this performance, as a small memorial of his ministry amongst them. They

appear to have been well calculated to anſwer the end of ſuch meetings, being applicable to the ſituation and circumſtances of the times, and breathing throughout a pious and devout ſpirit.

At Leyden a diſcourſe hath been publiſhed which was "preſented to the Academy of Chalons-ſur-Marne, in 1787, upon this Queſtion, What are the beſt Methods of exciting and encouraging Patriotiſm in a Monarchy, &c. by J. de Meerman, Signeur de Dalem; to which is annexed the Diſcourſe of M. Mathon de la Cour, &c. which gained the Prize." Without attempting to follow theſe authors through their ingenious diſſertations, we ſhall only obſerve, that the ideas of both are directed and confined to the form of monarchical government formerly eſtabliſhed in France, in which the legiſlative as well as executive powers were lodged in the hands of the ſovereign; and that both theſe diſſertations are diſtinguiſhed by good ſenſe, perſpicuity, and political knowledge. M. Mathon de la Cour, however, ſeems to have had ſuperior claims to the prize which was adjudged to him, from his pre-eminence in metaphyſical acumen, beauty of ſtyle, and energy of expreſſion.

The ſecond part of the fourth volume of the "Memoirs of the Philoſophical Society at Utrecht," has been publiſhed there during the preſent year. As the ſubjects contained this volume are not numerous, we ſhall lay them before our readers, together with the names of their authors. The firſt paper contains an account of the ſpeedy cure of a violent apoplexy, by Gerard Greene, M. D.; the ſecond is on the cultivation of Alpine plants, by M. Thouin, principal gardener to the king of France; the third is the caſe of a hydrocephalus diſcovered after death, by B. de Sola, M. D.; the fourth is a deſcription of the ganela Capenſis, accompanied with a drawing of that plant, by A. P. Nahuys, profeſſor of medicine, &c.; the fifth is a diſſertation on a particular conſtruction of the rampart of a fortification, by Ulrick Hugunin, captain-lieutenant of the artillery in the Dutch ſervice; the ſixth is a diſſertation on the nature of arſenic, and its effects on ſeveral ſorts of neutral ſalts, by the above mentioned A. P. Nahuys, which obtained the gold medal; and the laſt is a diſſertation, by the ſame, on a particular kind of neutral ſalt, extracted from the meſembryanthemum cryſtallinum, which obtained the ſilver medal.—The "Letter from Dr. Van Marum to the Chavalier Marſilio Landriani, containing a Deſcription of electrical Rubbers of a new Conſtruction," afford freſh evidence of the continued induſtry and ingenuity of that celebrated philoſopher, in perfecting the electrical machine. Of the effect of the improvements which he hath introduced, ſome idea may be formed by the doctor's ſtatement, that to charge a jar containing a ſquare foot of coated glaſs, to a certain height, determined by Lane's electrometer, required ſeven or eight revolutions of his machine when he uſed a pair of his old rubbers, but only one revolution and an half, with thoſe here deſcribed.—The diſſertation on the application of electricity to phyſics and medicine, to which the prize was aſſigned by the Royal and Patriotic Society of Valence, in Dauphiné, by A. Paets Van Trooſtwyk, &c. and C. R. T. Krayenhoff, M. A. &c." contains an ample hiſtorical view of the gradual progreſs of electrical knowledge, from the earlieſt diſcovery to

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the year 1786, and of medical electricity; interſperſed with a variety of judicious obſervations of their own, which are well adapted to facilitate the ſtudy of that branch of phyſics.—The "Inaugural Diſſertation, attempting to prove that the Changes obſervable in the Fluids of all organized Bodies, proceed from the vital Influence ſeated in their Veſſels, by Julius V. Coulen," publiſhed at Leyden, contains a detail of a number of experiments, as well as a number of arguments, which ſeem to eſtabliſh beyond all doubt, the important doctrine that the vaſcular ſyſtem of vegetables poſſeſſes irritability, as well as that of animals; and to juſtify the ingenious author in the proper application of this doctrine, that the great diverſity of fluids obſervable in different animals and vegetables, and alſo of thoſe ſpecifically different in the ſame individual, proceed in a great meaſure, if not entirely, from the different modes of acting of the veſſels on their fluids.

At Amſterdam there hath been publiſhed a "Hiſtory of the United Netherlands, by the rev. Jean Florent Martinet, M. A." who is already well known by ſeveral ſucceſsful publications. The work before us contains a geographical deſcription of the country; and its hiſtory from the earlieſt periods to the preſent times. It is methodical, inſtructive, and abounding with virtuous and patriotic ſentiments.—At Utrecht there hath appeared a "Memoir in Juſtification of the Rhingrave of Salm, reſpecting his Evacuation of that City," which, it is contended, was the reſult of abſolute neceſſity: a neceſſity ariſing from the ſupineneſs of the States General, and the total ignorance, parſimony, and perpetual blunders of the commiſſioners under whoſe controul the rhingrave was obliged to act.—The "Oration on the Character and Genius of the Arabians, by Henry Albert Schultens, Profeſſor of Oriental Languages in Leyden, delivered on his reſigning the Rectorſhip of that Univerſity," is a judicious and elegant piece of criticiſm, intended to recommend the ſtudy of that branch of ſcience in which the learned profeſſor is ſo deſervedly eminent. It contains a number of inſtructive and entertaining obſervations on the national character of the Arabs, the knowledge cultivated among them, the peculiar fitneſs of their language for poetical expreſſion, their natural turn for eloquence, and paſſion for poetry, together with the circumſtances by which theſe qualities are cheriſhed, and the objects by which they are excited.—M. Chriſtopher Saxius, whoſe indefatigable ſtudy, and profound erudition have given him an eſtabliſhed reputation in the learned world, hath publiſhed, at Utrecht, the ſixth volume of his "Literary Onomaſticon; or, Hiſtorico-Critical Nomenclature of the moſt eminent Writers of all Times, Nations, and Arts; and of the moſt illuſtrious Monuments, from the earlieſt Records to the preſent Time, digeſted according to the moſt probable Dates and Æras." This uſeful work, which contains a collected view of the whole hiſtory of literature, and on which the beſt judges of literary merit have ſtamped an high degree of value, is now approaching to its completion. The volume before us begins with the preſent century, and goes to the year 1740. We have reaſon to hope, therefore, that a ſeventh volume will be the laſt; and that it will contain a general regiſter to the whole work.

A conſiderable time hath intervened ſince our attention was drawn

to thoſe parts of the Netherlands lately under the dominion of the houſe of Auſtria, by the importance of any of their literary productions. In our account of the Foreign Literature of the year 1784, we announced the IVth vol. of the "Memoirs of the Imperial and Royal Academy of Sciences and Belles Lettres at Bruſſels." We have now the opportunity of introducing to our readers the 5th volume of thoſe Memoirs. The prefatory part conſiſts of Journals of the Academy from May, 1783; and of extracts from the memoirs which it was not thought proper to publiſh entire. The different articles which compoſe theſe memoirs are diſtributed under the two general heads of Philoſophy, and Hiſtory. The Communicators are, the Abbé Mann, M. de Launay, M. Burtin, M. Pigott, the Abbe Marcy, M. de Beunie, M. du Rondeau, and the Abbé Chevalier. In variety and importance of matter, this volume does not equal the former publications of the Academy.—We have alſo met with a great number of political treatiſes, occaſioned by the revolution in the Belgic provinces, which are adapted to increaſe the ſpirit of liberty, which the repeated acts of tyranny and perfidy in Joſeph II. called forth, with ſuch energy and luſtre. We hope that true ſcience and liberality will ſoon make equal progreſs, and concur in eſtabliſhing a form of government in the Netherlands, favourable to the civil and religious rights of men of all deſcriptions, and of all opinions.

Our hiſtory of the literature of Germany, we ſhall introduce by taking notice of ſuch publications as are devoted to the extenſion of Biblical criticiſm. And the firſt which demands our attention is the volume of "Notes on the prophet Iſaiah, with an introduction by J. Leonard Rieger," publiſhed at Memmingen. The introduction, which takes up half the volume, treats on the nature of the words of the prophet, on the idea of God held out by Iſaiah, on his prophecies concerning the Meſſiah, and a variety of other ſubjects, which preſent many ſenſible and good ideas to the reader. The notes are chiefly critical: partly compiled from Michaelis, Lowth, and other commentators, and partly the author's own.—At Leipſic hath been publiſhed a treatiſe entitled the "Nature and Qualities of the Book of Job, by C. Dav. Ilgen;" which is the production of a ſenſible and liberal author, who hath applied himſelf with zeal and ſucceſs to the ſtudy of claſſical literature. He contends that Job was not a poetical, but a real perſon, a deſcendant of Iſmael or Eſau, living in the vale of Damaſcus, during the firſt century of the Egyptian bondage; and ſupports his opinion with conſiderable plauſibility. His philological remarks and notes are alſo very valuable.—At Brunſwick there hath appeared "A tranſlation of the Song of Solomon, for the uſe of the German Jews, with ſome explanatory Remarks, by Moſes Mendelſſohn," which does credit to the pen of that writer. M. M. conſiders the Song of Solomon as repreſenting a trial of ſkill between a ſhepherd, and a ſhepherdeſs; and has divided it into ſeveral parts, conformably with this idea.—At Mayland, Dr. Caietanus Bagati hath publiſhed "Daniel, according to the Edition of the Septuagint, taken from the Tétrapla, publiſhed in Syriac, from a Syro-Eſtranghelic, MS. in the Ambroſian Library, with a Latin Verſion, &c." This work bears ample teſtimony.

mony to the abilities of the learned editor; especially in the notes, which contain much valuable and important matter.—The "Scholia on the Old Testament, part I. containing Genesis and Exodus, by E. F. C. Rosenmuller," published at Leipsic, though they do not contain much information for those who are conversant in Biblical literature, will afford desirable assistance to such as have not much opportunity for extensive reading.—At Hamburgh, M. Michaelis hath published "An Introduction to the Sacred Writings of the Old Testament, vol. I. containing the Introduction to the several Books seperately, part I." The part before us includes the books of Moses, and Job. The old versions, the Greek, Latin, Syriac, and Chaldee, are particularly examined by the author. He still retains the opinion formerly advanced by him, that Moses was the author of the book of Job. We cannot say that we agree with him in this part of his subject. But we think that he very satisfactorily establishes the point, that Moses was the author of the books given under his name, in opposition to those who contend that they were composed either by Ezra, David, or Hilkiah. He allows, however, that Moses, in compiling his history, had recourse to more ancient written and traditional accounts, and historical poems; but believes the history of the Creation to have been revealed to him immediately from God himself.—Lavater's "Pocket Bible for the afflicted," published at Winterthur, consists of three hundred and fifty short rhapsodies, or occasional meditations on texts of scripture, partly in prose, and partly in verse, which are entirely in the manner of that eccentric writer, and perfectly consonant with the opinions of systematic Calvinists.—At Halle, Dr. Griesback hath published "Critical Collations for the purpose of completing and appreciating the various Readings of the New Testament, vol. I." which is intended as a supplement to the learned author's edition of the New Testament. In this work Dr. Griesback hath collated some readings that had been omitted by Wellstein, and others quoted in the manuscript marginal notes of a copy of the first edition of Mills's New Testament, preserved in the Bodleian library. He hath also given the readings, that differ from the common copies, in two Latin MSS. in the Harleian library. To these collations is added an introductory discourse, in which the author hath examined the comparative merits of several MSS. of the New Testament; in which he displays that learning and critical acumen which have deservedly assigned him the very high rank which he holds among Biblical scholars.—At Tubingen, Dr. Storr hath acquired much praise by a little work entitled "Historical Remarks tending to explain the Epistles of Paul to the Corinthians." He justly thought that a good account of many historical circumstances alluded to in these Epistles, would be useful in elucidating their contents. His attempt to draw up such an account, and the ingenious conjectures which accompany it, are a proof of the great zeal and assiduity with which he applies himself to philological studies.—At Franckfort and Leipsic, M. Fred. Aug. W. Krause hath published "Translations of the Epistles to the Galatians and Ephesians, with Remarks." In these works the author appears to have consulted the best expositors, and to have executed his task with reputation and honour. It is his intention to publish all the shorter epistles of Paul in the same

manner.—At Leipsic, there have appeared, "Institutes of Religion, on the principles of Reason and Christianity; intended chiefly for the use of the upper Classes in Schools," in which the author avoids all learned investigations, and speculative subtilities, and establishes the truth of revelation by an appeal to the dictates of sound reason. As the author appears to be a firm but rational believer, and confines his enquiries to subjects that are of practical importance, his work may be recommended to young persons as an useful and instructive manual. —At Jena, the learned and respectable M. Doderlein hath republished six of his theological tracts, which have already been stamped with very general approbation. To these he hath now added a seventh tract, entitled "Liberty of Conscience in Religious matters, the great Source of Concord." The sentiments contained in this little piece, are such as we should expect from the comprehensive and liberal mind of the worthy author. He hath also published at the same place, "A Short Sketch of Christian Morality, for the Use of Lectures:" on which we shall only observe, that the author, by pursuing his accustomed plan of separating the Christian system of morality from dogmatics, and by controverting such unscriptural principles as have an unfavourable influence on the temper and conduct of religionists, hath performed a service which entitles him to the warm commendations and thanks of the friends to truth and virtue.—The Christian world is also much indebted to M. Aug. Christian Bartels, who hath published, at Hamburgh, two volumes "On the Worth and Effect of the moral Doctrine of Jesus; being an Apology for the same against *the only true System of the Christian Religion.*" The "only true System" contained a most partial and illiberal attack on the moral doctrines of Christianity, abounding in gross calumnies, and palpable contradictions. It was calculated, however, to do mischief to the unlearned and unthinking. M. Bartel's volumes offer an admirable antidote to the poison conveyed in that work; and a masterly and complete defence of the importance and value of the morality of Christ.—At Dresden and Leipsic, M. J. A. Cramer, Vice-chancellor of the University of Kiel, hath published a second volume of "Occasional Essays on Theological Literature and Religion." This author is possessed of no mean abilities: and the subjects which he discusses are curious and important. His principal pieces are meant as answers to M. Döderlein's doctrine of the Christian religion, and Semler's paraphrase of, and notes on the first chapter of John.—At Offenbach on the Maine have been published "Remarks on the Doctrines of Jesus, with respect to the Language and Opinions of the Jews, being an Attempt to ascertain what are the Doctrines of Jesus;" which are the productions of a modest and liberal mind, and possess a considerable share of merit.—At Gottingen hath appeared "A Defence of the Divinity of Christ, as asserted in the Creed of the Lutheran Church, by I. F. Flatt, Phil. Prof." In this work the author defends the arguments used in support of the orthodox doctrine, and answers the objections of the Socinians and modern Arians, with coolness and moderation; but in rather too slight and cursory a manner. His position that the arguments drawn from scripture are the only ones of value, is setting out on fair and tenable ground;

ground: but in illuſtrating theſe arguments, and in defining his terms, he ſhews that he hath not entirely liberated himſelf from the trammels of the ſchools.—At Jena, M. C. Leonard Reinhold, Profeſſor of Philoſophy, hath publiſhed a "Defence of the Lutheran Reformation, in anſwer to two Chapters of M. J. Schmid's Hiſtory of Germany; with Remarks on the preſent Catholic Reformation in Auſtria." The eſſays which compoſe this work, appeared, firſt of all, in different periodical publications, and met with very general approbation. The remarks which they contain are ſenſible and judicious, and do honour to his hiſtorical knowledge and liberality of ſentiment. His obſervations on the Catholic reformation, contain a number of important truths, which deſerve the ſerious attention of the more enlightened members of that communion.—At Ulm, Mr. Warkmeiſter, of Stutgard, hath publiſhed "Eſſays on amending the Catholic Liturgy in Germany, part I." which contain ſenſible and candid exhortations to the German biſhops, to ſet about ſuch alterations, as the preſent ſtate of knowledge and improvement render neceſſary, without waiting for the interference of the church of Rome.—At Leipſic there hath been publiſhed an ingenious expoſition and defence of the ſyſtem of Spinoza, entitled "Nature and God, &c. by Karl Hydenreich, vol. I." To this volume is annexed the life of Spinoza, written by a contemporary and friend, which contains ſome anecdotes of that extraordinary character, not commonly known.—The object of M. Villaume, profeſſor at Berlin, in his ſenſible and laborious work "On the Origin and Ends of Evil, in three vols." is to prove, that all evil, both philoſophical and moral, is only an accidental effect of the improper direction of beneficent powers, whoſe great and final end is to produce good; that not only ſome, but all kinds of evil are deſigned for uſeful purpoſes; and that both moral and philoſophical evil is the principal ſource, or at leaſt, the occaſion of our perfection and happineſs. The forcible reaſoning, perſpicuity, and plainneſs, which run through theſe volumes, are powerful recommendations of them to general acceptance.—The ſame author hath publiſhed, at Berlin, "Eſſays on Parental Authority," which are ingenious philoſophical compoſitions, and contain many excellent and uſeful maxims.—"The Arabian Mentor, or the Deſtination of Man," publiſhed at Cleves, is a tranſlation from a Hebrew verſion of a work on the ſubject of morals, which was written in Arabic, many centuries ago, by an author well acquainted with the ſcriptures, and the Platonic philoſophy. It may therefore, be conſidered as a literary curioſity: and in this light, principally, it is to be recommended.

In enumerating ſome of the principal mathematical and philoſophical publications which have appeared in Germany, our attention is due, in the firſt place, to the memoirs and tranſactions of royal academies and ſocieties. The "Memoirs of the Royal Society of Sciences at Gottingen, for the years 1787, 1788," conſiſt entirely of papers which are to be referred to the phyſical claſs. Their authors are, M. Blumenback, M. G. Forſter, M. Gmelin, Profeſſor Camper, M. Wriſberg, and Profeſſor I. A. Murray.—The firſt volume of the "New Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Science and Belles Lettres of Berlin," of which we gave any any account, was that of the year 1784. which appeared

in the 1786. Since that time the Academy have publiſhed two volumes, including their memoirs for the years 1785, and 1786. Theſe volumes, beſide the continued hiſtory of the academy, contain a variety of curious and intereſting papers, in experimental philoſophy, mathematics, ſpeculative philoſophy, and belles lettres. The principal contributors in experimental philoſophy are M. Achard, M. Walter, and M. de Berguelin. The mathematical department hath been almoſt engroſſed by M. de la Grange, and M. Jean Bernoulli. Under the head of Speculative Philoſophy, we meet with the ſenſible and elegant productions of M. Formey, and the ingenious inveſtigations of M. Schwab. Of the papers in the Belles Lettres, the moſt valuable have been communicated by the count de Hertzberg, M. Weguelin, and the Abbé Denina.—Among the labours of individuals which are ſpoken of with approbation, we find the "Aſtronomical Ephemeris for the Year 1791, with a Collection of the lateſt Obſervations and Diſcoveries in Aſtronomy, by J. E. Bode," publiſhed at Berlin; "A manual of Practical Aſtronomy, for beginners, and lovers of that Science &c. by Gottl. Fr. Röſler, vol. II." publiſhed at Tubingen; "The Principles of Statics, or that Part of Mechanics which treats of Equilibria in ſolid Bodies and Machines," by M. Abel Burja, profeſſor of mathematics at Berlin; the "Phyſico-chemical Eſſays and Obſervations, by Sigiſm. Fred. Hermbſtadt, vol. II." publiſhed at the ſame place; a "Photometrical Enquiry concerning the Clearneſs, with which we can obſerve diſtant Objects by means of refracting Teleſcopes &c. by I. Leon. Spath, Profeſſor of Mathematics and Natural Philoſophy, at Altdorf," publiſhed at Leipſic; "An analytical Examination of the accuracy with which a Surveyor can meaſure Lines and Angles, by means of various Mathematical Inſtruments," by the ſame author; and "The Officer's Manual, for the practical part of Tactics, &c. by G. Schranhorſt, Lieut. of Artillery, vol. II." publiſhed at Hanover.

Among the publications which contribute to the extenſion of natural knowledge, the moſt valuable and important is, the "Geographical Hiſtory of Man, and of the Quadrupeds which are diſperſed over different Parts of the Earth, with a Zoological Map adapted to the ſame, by E. A. W. Zimmerman, Profeſſor of Caroline College, Brunſwick, in three vols." publiſhed at Leipſic. This ſingularly inſtructive, and entertaining work, is divided into four principal parts. In the firſt, the author takes a view of the nobler animals, which are univerſally diffuſed over every part of the habitable globe, in the new and old worlds: in the ſecond, the claſſes of quadrupeds which inhabit both worlds, but yet are not ſo univerſal as the others: in the third, the inhabitants of particular regions only. The fourth part, which conſtitutes nearly the whole of the third volume, is chiefly devoted to various curious ſpeculations, and philoſophical inferences, drawn from the view of animal nature given in the preceding volumes. Theſe volumes are replete with uſeful information, and with ſtriking and intereſting remarks. And with a little more attention to method, arrangement, and the graces of compoſition, they might have been rendered ſtill more valuable.—To the ſame claſs muſt we refer "A Natural Hiſtory of the Animal Kingdom, for general Uſe, by J. F. W. Herbſt, vol. X."

X." publiſhed at Berlin, which completes that ingenious author's works; "A Deſcription of Zoophytes, with Plates, coloured from Nature, by Eugenius J. G. Chriſtopher Eſper," publiſhed at Nuremberg; the "Firſt Lines of Ornithology, by B. Merrem," publiſhed at Leipſic; the "Examination of the Hypotheſis of the Mutual Converſion of Mineral Bodies into each other, &c. by M. Ferber, Preſident of the Council of Mines, to the King of Pruſſia," publiſhed at Berlin; and the "Papers read at the Phyſico-Œconomical Society of Heidelberg, vol. III."

Among the hiſtorical productions of Germany during the year 1789, an "Abſtract of the Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory of Cardinal de Fleury, with Remarks, by Frederic II. King of Pruſſia, tranſlated from the French, partly from an authentic Manuſcript, vol. I." hath been publiſhed at Berlin. As but few copies of this abſtract were originally publiſhed, and it is not printed with the author's poſthumous works, this edition will no doubt be acceptable to the public. In this work the royal author, when not under the influence of his ſceptical prejudices, diſcovers great ſagacity and love of truth; and interweaves with his narrative a variety of inſtructive remarks and reflections which are adapted to impreſs liberal and juſt views of things on the minds of his readers.—At Leipſic, "The Hiſtory of the Chriſtian Church, by J. Math. Schröckh," is ſtill continued. During the preſent year he hath publiſhed his twelth volume, which gives an account of the Arian Schiſm, and of the lives and writings of Athanaſius, Hilarius, and Cyrillus.—At Vienna hath been publiſhed "The Bank of the Romiſh Religion, being a ſupplement to the Roman Law book, &c. in two vols." The Roman Law Book conſiſted of an abſtract of the great Roman Bullarium, which, from its expenſiveneſs, was out of the reach of moſt readers. The preſent work, which is moſt probably by the ſame author, contains a curious account of the ſources of the revenues of the papacy, and of various circumſtances reſpecting the conduct and policy of the court of Rome, which the reader will find intereſting and entertaining.—At Leipſic hath been publiſhed "An Introduction to the Univerſal Hiſtory of all Nations, for the Uſe of Students, by Ch. D. Beck, vol. I." This work is worthy of a more dignified character than its modeſt title would import. It is not only deſerving of the attention of the ſtudent, but may be read with profit and improvement by thoſe who are well verſed in hiſtory. The notes of the author, which are partly hiſtorical, and partly critical, diſcover an extenſive and intimate acquaintance with the beſt writers of antiquity. This volume reaches to the Macedonian monarchy.—At Salzburg, M. F. M. Vierthaler is engaged in publiſhing a "Philoſophical Hiſtory of Men and Nations," which is intended to comprehend all the known people of the earth, with a particular view to the progreſs of civilization. The firſt volume contains a brief hiſtory of geography, and of the revolutions which have taken place in the ſituations of different nations. And from the manner in which this is executed, we may venture to pronounce, that the whole work will be a valuable addition to the liſt of ſtandard publications in this branch of literature.—The 3d volume of the "Deſcription of the Turkiſh Empire, with reſpect to it's Religious and Political State, in the latter Part of the eighteenth Century, &c. by Chriſtopher W. Ludeke,

W. Ludeke, D D. &c. Leipſic," completes that learned author's well known work. It relates, chiefly, to the literature of the Turks; and and abounds in much inſtructive and entertaining matter.—At Brunn and Olmutz, there hath appeared a "Sketch of a brief Political and Geographical Hiſtory of the Marquiſate of Moravia, by Joſ. Wratiſlaw, Profeſſor of Eccleſiaſtical and Civil Law, in two volumes;" which is the work of a well informed and impartial writer, and may be read with pleaſure, and with profit. To the ſecond volume is prefixed an excellent diſſertation by Joſ. Dobrouſky, on the ancient ſeat of the Sclavonians in Europe; their ſpreading ſince the ſixth century; and, particularly, on the origin of the Moravians, with their hiſtory to the inſtallation of the duke Ladiſlaw.—At Stutgard hath been publiſhed the firſt part of the "Records of Swabia, by Hauſleutner." The plan of this work is comprehenſive and judicious; and when finiſhed, according to the deſign of the author, will tend greatly to improve our acquaintance with a part of Germany which at preſent is but little known, but which abounds in objects worthy of the attention of the hiſtorian and Antiquary. The volume before us treats of the hiſtory and antiquities of the duchy of Wirtemberg.—At Berlin there hath been publiſhed the firſt volume of a "Topographical and Political Deſcription of Brandenburg," by M. Borgſtede, one of the king's civil and military council in the electoral chamber of Berlin. The ſituation of this gentleman is excellently adapted to afford him all neceſſary information on the ſubjects which he undertakes to deſcribe. And from the peculiar importance of his ſcene, and the rich variety of materials with which it will ſupply him, we may expect to receive from his pen, a very valuable and intereſting performance.—The "Hiſtory and Deſcription of the Biſhoprick of Oſnaburgh, with Original Papers, by J. Eberh Stüve," is principally excellent as a judicious collection of facts, and original papers relative to the ſtate of that biſhoprick and the hiſtory of the dark ages.—The "Critical Hiſtory of Vienna, from the Year of Chriſt eight, to the Death of Charles the Great, &c. by Francis Baron Prandrau, volume I." is a work which will meet with a favourable reception from the learned world, as the author is well known to be a man of ſcience, and to be poſſeſſed of all the neceſſary materials for ſuch an undertaking.—At Brunſwick, M. C. P. Ribbentrop hath publiſhed "A Deſcription of that City," of which the foreign journaliſts ſpeak in reſpectable terms.—In addition to the publications already mentioned under this head, we can barely find room to inſert the names of the following works: "The Political Hiſtory of the Houſe of Henneberg, by M. Schultes, Governor of Themar;" "The Hiſtory of the Seceſſion of the United Netherlands from the Spaniſh Monarchy, by Fred. Schiller;" and the "Hiſtory of the Reign of the Emperor Joſeph I. with a View of the different Intereſts of the principal Powers of Europe, in the beginning of the Eighteenth Century, by J. Chriſtian Hercherhahn." The above mentioned have been publiſhed at Leipſic.—At Nuremberg a work hath appeared entitled, "The Lives of the greateſt and moſt celebrated Men of the Ancients, by Paul Joachim Siegmund Vogel;" at Munſter, "Accounts of the Lives and Inventions of the moſt celebrated

celebrated Mathematicians, in Alphabetical Order, including all except thoſe now living;" at Berlin, "The Portrait of Frederic the Great, taken from the moſt authentic and intereſting Anecdotes of his Military, Philoſophical, and Private Life, by S. F. Bourdais;" at the ſame place, "The Life of Lewis Erneſt, Duke of Brunſwick Lunenburg;" at Prague, "The Life of John Huſs, of Huſſinecz, by Aug. Zitte;" and at Mentz, "The Hiſtory of Diether, Archbiſhop and Elector of Mentz."

The laſt article in our hiſtory of the literature of Germany we have reſerved for ſuch publications as may be referred to the head of critical, claſſical, and polite learning. And one of the moſt important works which have engaged the attention of claſſical ſcholars is, M. Schweighaeuſer's new edition of "Polybius, volume I." publiſhed at Leipſic. The learned editor hath enjoyed the beſt and moſt valuable helps from ancient manuſcripts for correcting the text of his original: and his own learning, talents, and induſtry, are well known. It is then almoſt unneceſſary for us to add, that by employing his labours on the works of that celebrated hiſtorian, he hath done an acceptable ſervice to the republic of letters. This edition alſo poſſeſſes peculiar merits in point of typographical excellences.—At the ſame place hath been publiſhed a new edition of "The Hiſtory of Herodian, from the Text of H. Stephanus, with various Readings from three Manuſcripts, &c. by T. W. Irmiſch, volume I." The text of this work is taken from the edition of 1581. The numerous and extenſive notes which accompany it are, partly ſelected from various editions, and partly Mr. Irmiſch's own. They are not, however, of any conſiderable importance. The various readings are collected from a manuſcript in the library of Munich, another in that of S. Mark at Venice, and a third at Vienna. On the whole, this work promiſes to be a valuable edition of Herodian: and the editor is entitled to praiſe for the great care and accuracy with which he hath executed the volume before us.—At the ſame place, Mr. Brunk hath publiſhed a new edition of the "Remains of the Poems of Meleager;" in which he hath judiciouſly reſtored the parts of which they had been curtailed; particularly by the monk Planudes, in the fifteenth century.—At the ſame place a treatiſe hath appeared, "On the Spirit of Hebrew Poetry, by J. G. Herder, in two volumes." In this work the learned and ingenious author appears in the character of a poetical and philoſophical critic; and conſiders his ſubject in a light that will be found intereſting to every reader who has a taſte for polite learning. And, by examining and abſtracting the rhetorical and poetical language in which many paſſages of ſcripture are expreſſed, he hath afforded uſeful aſſiſtance to the ſtudent, in aſcertaining the plain fact which they are deſigned to tranſmit.—At Berlin, a work is publiſhing entitled, "Arethuſa, or the Paſtoral Poets of the Ancients," which is to conſiſt of two volumes, comprehending an eſſay on paſtoral poety, and a tranſlation of the Bucolics of Theocritus, Bion, Moſchus, and Virgil. From the ſpecimen which firſt volume affords, we are led to entertain a favourable of opinion of this work, particularly of the eſſay, which

which contains a number of new and juſt ideas.—At Leipſic, "A New German and French Dictionary, in two volumes," hath been publiſhed by M. J. Gottf. Haas, which is ſpoken of as an uſeful work, in which the different ſignifications of words are, in general given with great accuracy.—At Nuremberg, M. J. Roth hath publiſhed "An Uſeful Dictionary for Readers of all Claſſes, particularly for the Unlearned; or a ſhort but clear Explanation of Technical Terms, and Words not generally underſtood, uſed in common Converſation, or in Books of Science, &c. in Alphabetical Order, which, though not free from Defects, poſſeſſes a conſiderable Degree of Merit, eſpecially when compared with other Works of a ſimilar Kind."—At Leipſic, M. J. G. J. Breitkopf hath publiſhed "A Specimen of Chineſe Printing, compoſed by means of Figures of the Characters and Moveable Types;" which had been deemed an impracticable thing, but which hath been accompliſhed by his ingenuity and indefatigable labour. A particular account of this invention will ſoon be publiſhed by the author.

In attending to the literature of Switzerland, the firſt work which claims our attention, according to the order which we have preſcribed to ourſelves is, "The Hiſtory of the Rulers of Judea after the Captivity; by the Author of the Hiſtory of Jeſus," publiſhed at Zurich. This volume which ends with the birth of Chriſt, is the concluding one of a large and extenſive work on the hiſtory of the Iſraelites, from the whole of the ſenſible and learned writer hath derived a conſiderable ſhare of reputation. The ingenious enquiries which we meet with here, concerning the ſects of the Phariſees, the Sadduces, and the Eſſenes, diſplay much diligence of inveſtigation, and vigorous powers of reflection.—"The Patriotic Repoſitory for Swizerland, by a Society of Swiſſes, volume I." publiſhed at Baſil, conſiſts of a collection of patriotical, hiſtorical, political, and other eſſays, with topographical and biographical and fragments, partly new, and partly ſelected from other publications; which ſeems to have been formed with judgment, and promiſes to be a work of great utility.——The "Hiſtory and Memoirs of the Philoſophical Society of Luſanne, volume II." is chiefly compoſed of papers on natural hiſtory, agriculture, and mineralogy. And from the variety and importance of the ſubjects which they embrace, they convince us of the diligence and ſucceſs with which the ſociety apply themſelves to the object of their inſtitution. Among the principal contributors to this volume are count Razoumouſki, profeſſor Struve, M. J. Sennebier, Meſſrs. Van Berchem, ſenior, and junior, M. Reynier, and M. Wild, captain-general of the mines of Berne.—At Geneva, hath appeared "A Deſcription of a New Hydraulic Machine, invented and erected at Orbe, by M. Venel, M.D." which raiſes water by means of leathern buckets fixed to a rope, which is turned by a wheel, that is put in motion by the current. It is ſaid to be an ingenious and ſimple invention, and to unite in it ſeveral advantages.—At Zurich, M. L. Meiſters hath publiſhed "Elements of the Hiſtory of Holland from the Commencement of its preſent form of Government to the preſent Time;" which can be recommended only to thoſe who will be ſatisfied with a very brief and curſory view of the ſubject.—At the ſame

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place an anonymous author hath publiſhed "The Travellers Companion through Switzerland, with an Appendix, containing an Account of the moſt remarkable Things in the different Places mentioned, and a Map," in two volumes, which is a kind of work that was much wanted: and though not ſo complete as might be wiſhed, it will be found uſeful to ſuch as intend to make a progreſs through thoſe mountainous regions.

The Hiſtory of the Literature of Italy for the year 1789, preſents us with but few works of a theological complexion. The foreign journals, however, announce the publications of ſome treatiſes under the title of "The Acts of the Archbiſhops and Biſhops of Tuſcany," which have peculiar claims on the attention of the public, as they relate to ſome of the moſt important points of the eccleſiaſtical hiſtory of the preſent century. Theſe acts contain a plan of eccleſiaſtical diſcipline, by a nation deſirous of profiting by the improved ſtate of knowledge; all the biſhops of that nation unanimouſly exerting themſelves for that uſeful purpoſe, and excited to it by an enlightened prince, who aſſembled them in his palace, and ſubmitted his ideas to their deciſions. The titles of theſe publications are as follow: "Eccleſiaſtical Queſtions tranſmitted to all the Archbiſhops and Biſhops of Tuſcany, with their reſpective Anſwers:" the "Acts of the Aſſembly, in four Volumes, containing a Copy of the Deliberations; Memoirs preſented to the Prelates; Anſwer to the Memoirs; Examination of the Paſtoral Inſtructions of the Biſhop of Chienza and Pienza on many Important Religious Truths:" "Apology for ſome Books publiſhed at Piſtoia, in Anſwer to the Cenſures paſſed by fourteen Tuſcan Biſhops." "The Critical Examination of the Letter publiſhed under the name of Franzeſi, Biſhop of Montepulciano, in Anſwer to different Queries on Eccleſiaſtical Subjects, communicated to the Biſhops for their Opinion:" and "The Hiſtory of the Aſſembly." The impreſſion of theſe volumes is elegant and magnificent, being carried on at the expence, and under the inſpection of the Grand Duke.—At Padua there hath been publiſhed an excellent "Abridgment of the Hiſtorico-Dogmatico Critical Eſſay on Indulgences, with a Short Catechiſm of the ſame, according to the true Doctrine of the Church," which has been taken from the profeſſor Palmier's work, by profeſſor Zola, and is intended to remove the ſhameful prejudices of the people and clergy in favour of indulgences.—At Breſcia, have been publiſhed "Remarks on the Origin, Antiquity, and Progreſs of Monkhood in General, and of the Caſſinian Order in particular," which is a learned and well written performance. It contains alſo, ſhort lives of the moſt celebrated Benedictines, who have flouriſhed in the Venetian territories, and biographical anecdotes of thoſe now living.—At Parma, M. Boldoni hath publiſhed "A Brief Hiſtory of the Biſhops of Saluzzo," beginning with G. A. Della Rovere, elected in 1511, and ending with Joſ. Joachim Lovera, a patrician of Savigliano, the laſt biſhop who was appointed to that ſee. He has alſo added a defence of the account of the martyrdom of the Chriſtian legion, againſt the criticiſms of various writers, and particularly of Voltaire.

In philoſophy P. Baſilio Terzi, hath added to the reputation which he had ſo juſtly acquired from his former

former publications, by a "Critical Hiſtory of the Philoſophical Opinions of all Ages, on the Origin of the World, volume I." printed at Padua. This ingenious and elegant work, which diſplays extenſive knowledge and ſound criticiſm, is divided into three chapters. The firſt contains the reaſons of thoſe who believe not the world, or matter to be eſſentially eternal. The ſecond inveſtigates the opinions of thoſe who aſſert that God created the world from eternity, or at leaſt might have done ſo. The third enters into an examination of the queſtion, whether this be the moſt perfect poſſible of all worlds.

The next department which furniſhes ſuch publications as call for notice, is that of political œconomy, and natural knowledge. And we ſhall, in the firſt place, introduce to our readers "The Tranſactions of the Patriotic Society of Milan, volume II." This work contains a great variety of valuable diſſertations, memoirs, anſwers to queſtions, and deſcriptions of new machines, which are intended to facilitate improvements in agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, that are too numerous to be ſpecified by us. Many of them are of a more local nature, and calculated chiefly for the benefit of the country where they are publiſhed. Others of them, however, relate to objects of univerſal importance, and which have a conſiderable influence on the happineſs of mankind in general. We can therefore aſſure our readers, that they will meet with much intereſting and uſeful matter, while peruſing the labours of this patriotic ſociety.—The "Journal of Arts, Sciences, and Literature, by a Philoſophical Society at Turin, collected and arranged by G. A. Giobert, and Dr. C. Giulio, volume I. part I." is a production of a more miſcellaneous nature. It is the intention of this work to give an account of all new diſcoveries relating to the promotion of knowledge; and to inſert in each number two original eſſays, by men of reputation in the literary world. The preſent volume contains one on the beauties of different ſtyles, by count Bava de St. Paul; and another on marl, and other foſſile ſubſtances, by M. Giobert. It contains alſo meteorological obſervations made at Turin, in November and December, 1788; and a compariſon of the thermometer at Paris and at Turin in December.—The "Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences and Belles Lettres at Naples," were publiſhed during the laſt year. This volume opens with the preface of the ſecretary, M. Napoli Signorelli, giving an account of the proceedings of the members in attempting to inveſtigate various ſubjects belonging to the four claſſes into which the academy is divided, and the obſtacles which aroſe from the diſagreement of the members. We are afterwards preſented with ſeveral valuable papers in optics, mechanics, geometry, phyſiology, natural hiſtory, and antiquities. The principal members whoſe pieces have obtained a place in this collection are, D. N. Fregala, G. Anderlini of Bologna, G. Saladini, G. Saviero Poli, M. Cotugno, M. Angiol Faſano, and D. D. Diodati.—At Padua, M. J. A. Scopoli, hath publiſhed the third part of his "Deſcription of new or little known Species of Plants and Animals, obſerved in Auſtrian Lombardy, whether indigenous or exotic." With this volume M. Scopoli, to the great regret of the lovers of natural hiſtory, cloſes his botanical labours. To this determination he

hath been urged, partly by the difficulties of the undertaking, and partly by infirmity, originating in the intenſeneſs of his application.—At Venice, P. Caronelli hath publiſhed an "Eſſay on the Agricultural Education of Youth," which obtained the prize from the Agrarian academy of emulation at Conegliano. This eſſay, which abounds in ſound principles, hiſtorical facts, and important matter, is deſerving of the attention of thoſe who wiſh to extend a rational and uſeful acquaintance with rural œconomy.—At Naples, Dr. Dominic Cyrillo hath publiſhed his "Firſt Specimen of Neopolitan Entomology," in large folio, engraved on eleven plates, which is highly elegant and valuable. The ſame author promiſes to gratify the lovers of this branch of ſtudy with many ſcarce inſects, and nondeſcripts.—At Turin "An Appendix to the Piedmonteſe Flora," has been publiſhed by C. Allionio, which, beſide many notes and emendations, contains ſeveral plants omitted in that ſplendid work.

Among the hiſtorical productions of Italy, with which we unite Sicily, the firſt publication which we have to announce is, a "Collection of State Papers relative to the Hiſtory of Sicily, under the Government of the Saracens, from the Year 827 to 1072; now firſt taken from the Manuſcripts of the Weſtern Moors, by Alphonſo Airoldi, Archbiſhop of Heraclea, &c. vol. I." This curious work, which contains the correſpondence of the Saracen emirs, was accidentally diſcovered by the ambaſſador of the emperor of Morocco, who was induced to take a view of the Arabic MSS. in the library of the convent of St. Martin, by Abbé Vela, Arabic profeſſor at Palermo. It is ſaid to be faithfully decyphered and tranſlated by profeſſor Vela. It contains the ſtrongeſt internal proofs of authenticity; which have been confirmed by the ambaſſador who, on his return to Fez, ſent an account to the profeſſor of an exactly ſimilar MS. in the valuable library at that place, and with it a continuation of the hiſtory of Sicily, from its invaſion and conqueſt by the Normans, copied from two MSS. in the ſame library. After the mention of theſe particulars, our readers will be ſufficiently apprized of the importance and value of this publication.—At Piſa, Dr. G. B. Fanucci hath publiſhed "An Academical Diſcourſe on the Military Hiſtory of Piſa." His work which relates the fate of a republic, that from being a powerful and important free ſtate, was, after repeated ſtruggles, forced into an odious ſubjection to the Florentines, is highly intereſting. It is written in the chronological form; and relates facts with accuracy, and preciſion.—"The Hiſtory of the Year 1788," publiſhed at Venice, makes the fifty-ſeventh volume of a work begun in 1730, which is written by an author of conſiderable abilities and information, and hath obtained the ſanction of public approbation.—The "Hiſtorical, Phyſical, and Critical Remarks on Walachia and Moldavia," publiſhed at Naples and Florence, do great credit to the abilities and political knowledge of the author, who reſided eleven years in thoſe countries, which are but little known to moſt Europeans, and who thought that he ſhould perform an acceptable ſervice to the public, by laying before them their preſent ſtate, and the manners of the inhabitants. In a preliminary diſcourſe the author has given all he could learn relative to their antiquities. He has alſo added ſome documents and memoirs tending to elucidate the origin of

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the preſent war between Ruſſia, Auſtria and the Porte.

In Biography, "An Hiſtorical Dictionary of the Lives of the Ottoman Monarchs, to the preſent grand Signior Achmet; as well as of the moſt intereſting Objects, which relate to that Monarchy," hath been publiſhed at Venice, in two vols. The facts related in theſe volumes appear to have been ſelected with care and accuracy; and are clothed in an agreeable and eaſy ſtyle. The author ſeems to have engaged in this work from a perſuaſion that the preſent war between the emperor of Germany, the empreſs of Ruſſia and the grand Signior, would ſecure to it a favourable reception from the public.—At Piſa, S. Aug. Fabronio hath puliſhed the XIVth volume of his well known work, "On the Lives of learned Italians, who flouriſhed in the 17th and 18th Centuries," with which he appears to have terminated his labours, or at leaſt to have put a ſtop to them for ſome time.—At Turin, S. C. Tenevelli continues to publiſh "The Piedmonteſe Biographer." The firſt part of the fourth decad, which has appeared during the preſent year, is devoted to the hiſtory of eccleſiaſtics. This part contains the lives of pope Nicholas II. Ardonio Biſhop of Turin, John de Garabelli, cardinal della Roveri, and Amedee Benuti.—The following elegant eulogies on illuſtrious characters have alſo been publiſhed in Italy, during the year 1789: At Florence, "An Hiſtorical Eulogy of the Chev. G. Filangieri, by Donato Tommaſi;" and "An Eulogy of Abbé Ridolphino, Marquis Venuti, read at the Etrurian Academy of Cortona, by P. Pompilio Pozetti:" at Venice "The Eulogy of D. M. Manni, of Florence, by G. Bern. Tornitano:" and at Padua the "Eulogy of Geſner, by Abbé Berthola," the tranſlator, friend, and imitator of that poet.

The next article which we ſhall introduce, is more intimately connected with the head of Antiquities. It is entitled the "Philoſophical and Political Hiſtory of the Navigation, Trade, and Colonies of the Ancients in the Black Sea, by V. A. Formaleoni, vol. I." publiſhed at Venice. This work comprizes the hiſtory of the Black Sea, from the earlieſt period to the ſixteenth century. The object of the author is, to hold out to modern nations the conduct of the ancients, as a pattern for the trade of this vaſt ſea: and to induce them from the example of the latter, to ſtudy and re-eſtabliſh a commerce, which has been the ſource of the greatneſs of more than one people, but has been loſt to Europe for more than three centuries. The following volumes are to give the ancient hydrography of the Black Sea, and whatever there is curious on the ſubject, in hiſtory or phyſics; the authorities on which the work is founded; and an ancient and modern dictionary of the countries deſcribed. This work promiſes to be curious, entertaining, and inſtructive. —At Milan, the celebrated Count Carli is engaged in publiſhing a ſplendid work "on the Antiquities of Italy." The only volume which we have yet heard of, is divided into four books. The firſt treats of the Italians prior to the foundation of Rome; the ſecond, of the primitive Iſtrians, and the neighbouring people, with the conqueſt of Iſtria and Ciſalpine Gaul by the Romans; the third of the particular laws of Ciſalpine Gaul, with the ſtate of the Illyrians, Dalmatians, Pannonians, Liburnians, and Japygians; the fourth of the chorography of Iſtria, when a Roman province

vince. In this volume, the author preſents his readers with a great variety of curious conjectures, intereſting enquiries, and uſeful remarks, that muſt enſure their favourable acceptance of his labours, however fanciful they may ſometimes conſider him to be.—At Florence, the Abbé Domenico Seſtini hath publiſhed "A Journey from Baſſora to Conſtantinople," in which he met with a number of ſubjects for obſervation, relating to natural hiſtory, antiquities, commerce, ancient geography and manners, of which he hath given an account in a narrative that is extremely intereſting and pleaſing.

The laſt publications which demand inſertion in our liſt of the productions of Italy, are ſuch as relate to ſubjects in claſſical and polite literature. In this number is the "Diſſertation on the Epiſode of Dido and Æneas, by the Abbe Andres," publiſhed at Ceſena; the object of which is to defend Virgil from the anachroniſm which he hath ſo frequently been ſuppoſed to be guilty of, in making theſe two perſons contemporaries. His arguments he draws from the ſilence of the ancient grammarians, who were accuſtomed to contend and quibble about the moſt trifling circumſtances; from the ſcrupulous attention of Virgil to the moſt inconſiderable fictions, to epithets, and expreſſions; and from Newton, who conſiders but twenty one years to have intervened, between the foundation of Carthage, and the deſtruction of Troy. We leave theſe arguments to have their proper weight on the minds of our readers.—At Rome have been publiſhed, "Hiſtorico-critical Annotations on the Salluſtian Obeliſk." This obeliſk was recovered from ſome ruins, and placed by the preſent pope on the Colle Pincio. The author of the work before us expatiates on the propriety of its ſituation on a variety of grounds. To what he ſays on this head, he adds ſome hiſtorical remarks on the antiquity of obeliſks, the time of their introduction into Rome, and the manner of their being tranſported thither, which are ſenſible and ingenious.—At the ſame place have been publiſhed "A Grammar and Vocabulary of the Curdiſtan Language, by P. Maurizio Garzoni, of the Apoſtolical Miſſion." This language approaches ſo nearly to the Perſian, that it may be deemed merely a dialect of it. The preſent work, to which is prefixed a ſhort account of Curdiſtan, is publiſhed by the Society for propagating the Faith, for the uſe of their miſſionaries.—At Vercelli, an anonymous author hath publiſhed "Elements of Logic, or firſt Principles of the Art of Reaſoning," in which nothing new can be expected, excepting in the manner and arrangment. In theſe reſpects the author is ſaid to have peculiar merit.—The "Critical Hiſtory of the Drama, both of the Ancients and Moderns, by P. N. Sigrorelli," publiſhed at Naples, is not a new edition of a work with the ſame title, that was publiſhed ſome years ago, but a quite different undertaking, and on a much more extenſive ſcale. It is to conſiſt of five volumes. The firſt, which is that before us, relates to the origin of the drama in the various parts of the globe; and does honour to the extenſive reading, abilities, and taſte of the author.—The letters from Diodoro Delfico to Leſbia Cidonia, on Epigrams," publiſhed at Bergamo, are the productions of the celebrated Abbé Bettinelli, and were written by him to the counteſs Paolino Griſmondi. The Abbé, a zealous admirer of the French language and literature, was an inti-

mate friend of Voltaire, and ſpent a great part of his life among the ſocieties of wits at Paris. Theſe letters contain no learned diſſertation on epigrams, but a relation of the *bon mots* and *combats d'eſprit* in which he took a part; together with many intereſting and amuſing anecdotes. Some of thoſe, however, which he relates of Voltaire, do no great honour to the memory of his friend.

The hiſtory of the literature of France for the year 1789, will be found peculiarly barren in theological productions. In biblical criticiſm, we do not recollect that any work hath appeared. And we have met with very few treatiſes which have any reference to theology or eccleſiaſtical hiſtory. With reſpect to ſuch works, however, as are intended to illuſtrate and recommend publications in ſacred literature, by the ſplendid embelliſhments of art, we find that our Gallic neighbours are following the example which has been ſet before them by individuals in this country. From a Proſpectus publiſhed at Paris, we learn, that a ſuperb edition of the Bible, in French, is about to be publiſhed by M. Defer, de Maiſſonneuve. It is to be printed by M. de Didot, junior, and ornamented with three hundred plates, deſigned by M. Marillier, and engraved by the beſt artiſts under the direction of M. Ponce, engraver to the count d'Artois. It will be publiſhed in twenty-five numbers, each containing twelve plates; ſome of which are to be printed on large vellum paper.—"The Law of Nature developed and perfected by the Law of the Goſpel, by M. l'Abbé Pey," publiſhed at Paris, is intended to ſhew that the law of nature, of which the enemies of Chriſtianity ſtyle themſelves the defenders, is nowhere to be found but in the Goſpel; and that Chriſt has not only unfolded all the duties of man, but has carried them to a degree of perfection which human wiſdom had never attained. The author's plan is divided into two parts. In the firſt he diſplays the maxims of the law of nature, according to the ſimple ideas of right reaſon; ſhewing its conformity to the law of Chriſt from texts of ſcripture, by way of notes. In the ſecond he ſhews that the Goſpel has heightened thoſe laws by the ſublimity of its views, the force of its motives, and the multiplicity of its means. This excellent work is written with good ſenſe and with candour, and deſerves to be read with attention.—The volume of "Eſſays on Honour, Opinion, Duty, Paſſion, Happineſs, Pleaſure, &c. addreſſed to a Young Nobleman," abound in good and uſeful matter. In the arrangement, ſtyle, and language, they might have been rendered more acceptable to young perſons, for whoſe inſtruction and benefit they are intended.—The "Collection of Gallic Councils, publiſhed or unpubliſhed, in Chronological Order, from the Year 177 to 1563; with Letters of Popes, Conſtitutions of Princes, and other Documents of the Gallic Church; by the Society of Monks of St. Maur," is a valuable addition to the general liſt of publications in eccleſiaſtical hiſtory. This collection differs from that of P. Sirmond, in a reviſal of the text; in a conſiderable addition of different pieces, either unpubliſhed, or ſcattered in various works foreign to the ſubject; in diſſertations on different matters, and preliminary obſervations for the better underſtanding the ſubjects of the pieces publiſhed; and in various notes with which the whole is accompanied. The text has been reviſed from

from collations of various MSS. both in France, and in other countries; and the notes abound in learned and useful criticisms. This volume reaches to the year 591.

Among the publications which appeared in France on the subjects of government, law, and political œconomy, we find "An Introduction to a single Code of Laws, or a Lawyer's Reflections on Subjects interesting to the Order and Union of Civil Society, &c. by M. Picard de Prebois, Counsellor at Law, in two volumes," published at Caen. This work exhibits very judicious reflections, and useful views. The author does not offer it as a code of laws, but as a sketch of such a code, exhibiting the evils to which civil society is liable, and pointing out their remedies.—"The Public Law of France, a Posthumous Work of M. L'Abbé Fleury; published with Notes tending to explain the Text, by M. de Arragon, in three volumes," is little more than a large skeleton of a work, which, probably, the Abbé intended to have filled up, had he not been prevented by other studies. Prefixed to it is an introductory discourse on civil education, by the editor, and an essay on the public law of France, by M. Pasquier. It also contains some other tracts on legislation and police, found among the Abbé Fleury's papers.—"The Dignity of Commerce, and of the Profession of a Merchant, by M. Anquetil du Perron," is a most valuable work, which will suggest many important considerations to a thinking mind. If our limits permitted we should be glad to lay an analysis of it before our readers. But as that is impracticable, we refer them to the work itself, from the perusal of which they will receive ample gratification.—"The Essay on the Means that may be employed in France, for amending the situation of Husbandmen, Day-labourers, &c. which obtained a Prize from the Academy of Chalons-sur-Marne," is an important and valuable publication. It is divided into two parts. In the former the author paints, in strong colours, the baneful effects of feudal institutions, which he considers as the first cause of the misery of the peasants; examines their origin, their influence on agriculture, and enquires into the means of abolishing them. In the latter he paints out many subsidiary means that may be employed; as the division of commons, a more equal taxation, the diminution or suppression of tolls, &c. &c. At the present juncture, when the thoughts of every person are turned towards a thorough reform in the state, this essay is deserving of the attention of of the people of France.—The Treatise "On the Restoration of the Jews to the Rights of Natural, Moral, and of Civil Society, which obtained the Prize of the Royal Society of Arts and Sciences at Metz, by M. Gregoire, Curate of Embermenil," is a work replete with sentiments worthy of the philosopher and the Christian, abounding in useful remarks, and enlivened with entertaining and ingenious notes. The author pleads the cause of that neglected and despised people, with zeal, and eloquence, and invincible arguments.—The same subject hath employed the pen of M. Thiery, advocate in the parliament of Nancy, who also obtained a prize from the same society. His dissertation does honour to the author's humanity, and philosophic spirit; and will concur, no doubt, with other publications of the same kind, in extinguishing those illiberal prejudices which make man an enemy

to man, and lead to the violation of the moſt valuable rights of human nature.—Several other publications have appeared in France, during the preſent year, in the department which we are now conſidering. We muſt, however, content ourſelves with inſerting the titles of ſuch as have been received with peculiar approbation, and contributed to ſpread or confirm the principles which have produced ſuch glorious effects in that kingdom. In this number is the "Memoir in Favour of the Commons of France." which has been much read and admired; the "Thoughts on the Antiquity of the Third Eſtate, and on the Cauſes of the temporary Suſpenſion of its Rights, &c. by M. Gautier de Sibert," which is a very able and important work; the "Addreſs to the People of France," which hath been diligently diſperſed, and greedily received; and a "Dialogue between a Frenchman and an Engliſhman on the preſent and future State of France, by M. le Frank."

In pure Mathematics we have not met with any articles that are entitled to be diſtinctly noticed by us: we ſhall, therefore, proceed to give a brief view of the publications in philoſophy and natural hiſtory. An the firſt work that claims our attention is, "The Hiſtory and Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, for the Year 1786." The hiſtorical part of this volume contains two reports of the commiſſioners appointed to ſuperintend the four hoſpitals in Paris, which do great honour to the philoſophy and the benevolence of thoſe gentlemen. One of them contains an account of their obſervations on the œconomy of the charitable inſtitutions of this kind in England, which they highly praiſe: a circumſtance extremely gratifying to our feelings, as Engliſhmen. This part of the volume alſo contains obſervations on the northern inclination of the magnetic needle, by M. de Valois, dated from Mocha; an account of magnetiſm, communicated by an earthquake, to a ſteel bar, which was ſuſpended by ſilk cords in the magnetic equator; and two eulogies, one on Dr. Guettard, and the other on the Abbé de Guay, which are rendered entertaining by the ingenious ſcientific illuſtrations of their learned and eloquent author. The memoirs of this volume are claſſed under the heads of general phyſics, chemiſtry, anatomy, natural hiſtory, aſtronomy, mathematics, medicine, and political œconomy. The ſubjects of the principal of them are, the formation and properties of the inflammable hepatic gas, by M. de Fourcroy; iron in its ſeveral metallic forms, by Meſſ. Vandermond, Berthollet, and Monge; the cyders of Normandy, by Meſſrs. Cadet, Lavoiſier, Beaumé, Berthollet, and D'Arcet; the decompoſition of water by vegetable and animal ſubſtances, by M. Lavoiſier; the ſecular equation of the moon, by M. de la Place; different aſtronomical communications, by M. de la Lande; two memoirs on integration by elliptic arcs, by M. le Gendre; and a continuation of the eſſay deſigned to aſcertain the population of France, by Meſſrs. Du Sejour, De Condorcet, and De la Place.—The third volume of the "Hiſtory and Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences, Inſcriptions, and Belles Lettres of Toulouſe," contains a variety of papers in chemiſtry, anatomy, mathematics, political œconomy, medicine, antiquities, mineralogy, and meteorology; many of which are important and intereſting, and will abundantly repay the attention of the

the reader. Among other contributors to this volume, we find M. de Puymaurin, the Abbé Martin, M. Centy, M. Parmentier, M. Reboul, and M. de la Peirouse.—Among other works in natural philosophy which have appeared in France during the present year, we must not forget to announce the publication of "An Elementary Treatise on Chemistry, in two volumes," by M. Lavoisier, which has been been received by the French philosophers with the most flattering regard; and which is the work of an author well known to possess a daring and original genius, much information, and unwearied industry.—Neither must we neglect to inform our readers, that M. Fourcroy hath published a new edition of his "Elements of Chemistry;" with considerable additions. These have been excerpted by M. Adet, and published in a separate volume, for the benefit of those who had purchased the former edition.—In addition to the foregoing publications, we can only insert the titles of the following works: "An Analytical Treatise on the apparent Motions of the Celestial Bodies, by Dionis du Sejour, in two volumes"; "Elements of Subterranean Geography, Theoretical and Practical, &c. by M. Duhamel, volume I.;" "The Theory of Fire, with its application to the Human Body, by M. Dutasta Laserre, M. D;" "Essays on Meteorology, as a continuation of, and Supplement to the Treatise on Meteorology, published in 1774, by M. L. P. Cotte, in two volumes;" and "An Essay on the Natural History of Rocks of Trapp; containing their Analysis, &c. by M. Faujas de St. Fond."—Among the treatises on natural history, we meet with the last fasciculi of the "Stirpes novæ, aut minus Cognitæ, &c. by Charles Lewis L'Heretier, Baron de Brutelle, &c." whose beauty and splendour are only equalled by their accuracy; "A Botanical Essay on the Genus *Cornus*, containing Descriptions and Figures of such Species of it as are little known," by the same; "The Sertum Anglicum, or Descriptions of such rare Plants as are cultivated in the Gardens near London; especially those in the Royal Gardens at Kew," by the same; a prospectus of a splendid work enentitled "Florindie, or a Physico-œconomical History of the Plants of the Torrid Zone, containing a History of the Plants of St. Domingo, &c. by M. de la Haye;" and the "Essays on Natural History, in two volumes, by M. Bernard," which contain several important papers.—Nor must we omit making mention of a "Treatise on the Cultivation of Oaks, containing the best Methods of Sowing, Planting, &c. by M. Juge de St. Martin."

When we turn our attention to the historical productions of France, we meet with "An Historical and Chronological Sketch of the Ancient History of the principal Countries of Europe, Asia, and Africa, and of that of the Middle Age, &c. by M. de Grace," which is drawn up with great accuracy and method, and deserves to be recommended as an useful elementary work, proper to be placed in the hands of youth.—The "Description of Nigritia, by M. P. D. P. formerly Member of the Supreme Council at Senegal, &c." seems to possess the merit of veracity, and is drawn up in a plain, artless manner. But it is remarkably deficient in point of method; and abounds with tedious digressions and repetitions.—"Lewis XIV. his Court, and the Regent, by M. Anquetil, in four volumes," is a most

most interesting and entertaining work. For notwithstanding the numerous histories, memoirs, and anecdotes that have been published, relative to that period, our author hath provided us with new stores of information and amusement. His work also is arranged and written with uncommon judgment and spirit.—The "History of France from the Death of Lewis XIV. to the Peace concluded at Versailles in 1783, by Anthony-Stephen-Nicolas des Odoards Fantin, &c. in eight volumns," will afford the reader much useful information concerning the state of France, and other European powers, in that period. But we cannot call the author an impartial historian. He exggerates the merits of his countrymen beyond all bounds; and justifies or palliates those measures of the French court, and those mortifying events in the history of the nation, which a citizen of the world would have painted in very different colours.—"The Secret History of the Court of Berlin," which has been attributed to count Mirabeau, together with a number of curious and important facts, details an abundant quantity of scandal respecting the present king of Prussia, the baron de Hertzberg, and other illustrious personages at the court of Berlin, which have deprived the work of that share of authenticity which it would otherwise have acquired. But be the author who he may, he is entitled to the praise of being an able projector; and his political and commercial observations are worthy of particular attention.—The "Private Correspondence between the count de Saint Germain, Secretary of State for the Military Department, and M. Paris du Verney, Privy Counsellor, in two volumes," is entirely on the operations of the army, and on military politics, and will prove interesting only to those, who are engaged in such subjects.—The "Private and Historical Correspondence of Marshal Duke de Richlieu, with M. Paris de Verney, in two volumes," contains a variety of materials that will be valuable to the historian. As an entertaining work, much cannot be said in its praise.

In Biography, the "Life of Clovis the Great, first Christian King, and Founder of the French Monarchy, by M. Viallon," is a judicious and entertaining work. In opposition to P. Daniel our author contends, that his hero did not dwell beyond the Rhine, but inherited the throne of his ancestors in German Gaul, of which Tournay was the capital.—The "Eulogy of P. Ternail, called the Chevalier Bayard, without Fear and without Reproach, which obtained the Prize from the Literary Society of Grenoble," is an honourable tribute to the memory of that excellent character, and does credit to the abilities and sentiments of the author.—"The Private Life of the Cardial Dubois, Prime Minister, and Archbishop of Cambray," exhibits, on the other hand, a character deformed by the worst vices that can disgrace human nature. And it affords us a striking instance of the success, which the meanest talents, with brilliancy, address, and flattery, may obtain in a licentious and unprincipled court.

Among the books of travels which the year 1789 hath produced, those of "M. le Vaillant, in the interior parts of Africa, by the Cape of Good Hope, in two volumes," have greatly interested the curiosity of the public. This work contains a journal of his rambles among the Hottentots and Caffres; and gives

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us a moſt intereſting and entertaining account of every incident as it aroſe. His deſcriptions are founded on facts; and the ſcenes which he exhibits, are novel, romantic, and inſtructive. But the author does not confine himſelf to narrative merely. He hath enriched his work with many remarks and obſervations, that throw much light on natural hiſtory. We are happy to learn, that M. Vaillant purpoſes to publiſh an account of a ſecond journey, which will be followed by the deſcription of above three hundred birds, not known in Europe.—The "Travels in Barbary &c. together with an Eſſay on the Natural Hiſtory of the Country, by the Abbé Poiret, in 2 vols." diſplay conſiderable learning and abilities; and ſuch deſcriptions of the religion, cuſtoms, and manners of the Moors and Bedouin Arabs, as will afford entertainment to the reader. The field of his obſervation, however, was not extenſive; and he has been preceded by other travellers, who have given nearly ſimilar accounts. The "Journey to the French Pyrenees, &c." contains an entertaining deſcription of a romantic country, interſperſed with many hiſtorical facts, and philoſophical reflections, that are both inſtructive and intereſting.

The laſt articles which we have to mention in our account of the productions of France, are ſuch as are included under the heads of claſſical, polite, and miſcellaneous literature. The "Emendations of, and Obſervations on Suidas, by I. Schweighaeuſer, profeſſor of Greek and Oriental Literature," publiſhed at Straſburg, is a ſmall, but valuable work, which is well deſerving of the attention of the learned. The author's principal recomendations conſiſt in his happy collation of many paſſages; his application of various fragments to the explanation of hiſtorical matters; and the preciſion of his grammatical remarks.—M. le Blanc de Guillet's tranſlation into verſe, of "Lucretius on the Nature of Things, in two vols." poſſeſſes the merit of fidelity; ſo much ſo, that the lovers of ſmooth verſe will ſometimes be tempted to accuſe the author of harſhneſs. But whenever it was poſſible to reconcile harmony and fidelity, our tranſlator appears to have done it. Our principal approbation, however, is due to the preface and notes, which ſhew M. le Blanc's extenſive reading and knowledge.—M. Ferri's publication "on Eloquence, and ancient and modern Orators," is an inſtructive, complete, and methodical treatiſe on rhetoric, in which the author diſplays that taſte and erudition which muſt enſure his work a favourable reception with all good judges of ſuch compoſitions.—The "Morning Amuſements of Sens, or French Proverbs, with an Account of their Origin, their Reſemblance to thoſe of other Languages, &c." is an amuſing collection, which we are glad to find the author intends to continue, as ſuch works contain the philoſophy of a people, and exhibit certain indications of their character. The author of this volume has added ſome hiſtorical anecdotes, remarkable ſayings, and accounts of ancient cuſtoms &c. from which the reader will derive inſtruction and entertainment.—The "Literary Pantheon, dedicated to the Nine Muſes, &c. containing Didactic Diſſertations, and curious Obſervations on the Riſe, and Progreſs of the Arts and Sciences, together with Poems, Anecdotes, Epigrams, &c. for the year 1789," is nothing leſs than an almanac: but far ſuperior to the majority of ſuch kind of publications, as it is filled with diſſertations

tations on different points of ſcience and literature, many of which are written by men who are eminent for their literary talents. We could wiſh to ſee the deſign imitated in our own country.

With reſpect to the literature of Spain, we have but little information to lay before our readers. Among the very few publications of which we have been able to obtain any knowledge, the "Hiſtory of the Luxury and ſumptuary Laws of Spain, by M. D. Giovanni Sempere, in two volumes," is the firſt which, in point of order, demands our notice. M. Sempere is already known in the republic of letters as an author of erudition, diſcernment, and taſte: and his name is ſufficient to recommend any work of his to the attention of literary men. The work before us begins at the time of the Carthaginians, and is carried down as far as the reign of Charles III. As it comprizes a number of curious and intereſting objects, we regret that it is not in our power to lay a more particular account of it before our readers.—The "Hiſtory of the famous Order of the Golden Fleece, &c. by D. Julian de Piredo y Salazar, in 3 vols. folio," is an elegant and ſplendid work, which deſerves a place in the libraries of the curious. The firſt volume treats of the founding of the order, the cloathing of the knights &c. with a hiſtory of its general chapters; to which are added the life of Philip II. the Good Duke of Burgundy, the founder of the order, and thoſe of many of the companions. The ſecond volume is chiefly polemical. The third contains the conſtitution of the order; the proceedings of the general chapter held at Utrecht, by the emperor Charles the Vth; the bulls of the popes in confirmation of it; together with a variety of curious particulars, too numerous to be recited in our work.—The "Coaſt of Spain in the Mediteranean, and the oppoſite Coaſt of Africa," and the "Deſcription of the Iſlands Baleares," contain the explanation of a grand Atlas, conſiſting of fifteen large charts, the execution of which does great honour to the Spaniſh nation.—The "Hiſtorical and Critical View of Spaniſh Literature, by Don Antonio de Campany, in four volumes," contains judicious ſelections from the moſt eſteemed and celebrated authors in Spain, from the commencement of the thirteenth to the end of the ſeventeenth century, in order to vindicate his countrymen from the miſrepreſentations of foreigners, and to convey a general idea of the richneſs, majeſty, and harmony of the Spaniſh language. Theſe he hath accompanied with much liberal and juſt criticiſm. The learning and diligence diſplayed in this work give us a high opinion of the author, and entitle him to the thanks of his countrymen.—The "Iliad of Homer, in Verſe, by D. Ignacio Garcia Malo, vol. I." is the firſt tranſlation of that work which Spain has produced. It deſerves much praiſe with reſpect to its accuracy, and the harmony of its verſification. In the introduction, the author has delivered a number of remarks and obſervations, which are evidences both of his erudition, and of his fine taſte.

With this article we ſhall cloſe our hiſtory of Foreign Literature of the year 1789.

FINIS.